

**The Internationalisation of Higher Education in Vietnamese  
Universities**

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## **Abstract**

This thesis seeks to develop an understanding of internationalisation in functioning universities in Vietnam, which has remained an under-researched area. Of particular interest are how the academics perceive the conceptions and practices of the internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam. Drawing on data from 25 semi-structured interviews, 263 questionnaires, and documentary analysis collected at two typical different universities in Vietnam, the general research findings yield both similarities and discrepancies of internationalisation regarding conceptual understandings, rationales, practices, risks, challenges and future priorities between the two cases from their academics' perspectives. In particular, the findings reveal a wide variation in academic participants' views regarding the conceptualisation of internationalisation. Additionally, a number of rationales for internationalisation of higher education of these two cases are brought to light, in which academic motives are clearly identifiable, economic, social, cultural or political objectives are also important in determining the institutional policy and orientation towards internationalisation. Subsequently, a number of risks and challenges confronting these institutional efforts in internationalisation are explored, mainly related to the absence of systematised strategies, finance, highly qualified academic staff, and infrastructure. While there are various differences in internationalisation practices undertaken between these two universities, the future strategic priorities suggested by their academics are similar. In general, this project contributes to understanding of the conceptualisation and characteristics of the internationalisation in higher education at the grassroots level in Vietnam.

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## **Declaration**

“Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic award.”

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### **List of Abbreviations**

AEC	ASEAN Economic Community
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
AUN	ASEAN University Network
CDIO	Conceive - Design - Implement - Operate
Erasmus	European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
GATS	The General Agreement on Trade in Services
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HERA	Higher Education Reform Agenda
IAU	International Association of Universities
IT	Information Technology
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
Ph.D.	Doctor of Philosophy
PFIEV	Programme de Formation d'Ingénieurs d'Excellence au Vietnam
TRIG	Teaching and Research Innovation Grants
U.S.	United States
UK	United Kingdom
VND	Vietnamese Dong, the currency of Vietnam
VNU	Vietnam National University
WB	World Bank
WTO	World Trade Organisation

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## **Chapter 1. Introduction**

### **1.1 The Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this thesis is to develop the body of knowledge in the area of internationalisation of higher education in developing countries, particularly, in the Vietnamese context.

### **1.2 The Study's Focus**

This empirical research explores different aspects of internationalisation of higher education in the Vietnamese context from the perspectives of their academics. Specifically, the study explores six facets regarding internationalising higher education institutions, including the conceptual understandings, rationales, practices, risks, challenges, and strategic priority envisagement.

### **1.3 Justification for the Research**

The impetus in investigating internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam is threefold: a conviction of its educational importance, no such research has been conducted in this area so far, and my personal interest.

First, a wide range of research has asserted that majority of universities and colleges worldwide view internationalisation as a significant policy strategy for their institutional development (Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Enders & Fulton, 2002; Dill & Soo, 2005; de Wit & Hunter, 2015). As a result, theoretical and practical studies on this field have been substantially grown with a widely diversified range of aspects in developed countries (Yang, 2002, p. 81; Bartell, 2003, p. 43; Kehm & Teichler, 2007, p. 236). However, in developing countries, the amount of research conducted in this field, over the past 30 years, has been disproportionately low, especially in Vietnam (Nguyen, 2011, p. 16).

Since the economic reformation in 1986, the growing forces of political, economic, and social globalisation have demanded Vietnamese universities to pursue their core missions in a way that addresses the issues at all local, national, and international levels (Nguyen, 2011, Nguyen, Vickers, Ly, & Tran, 2016). This requirement has pushed the Vietnamese universities to pursue internationalisation strategies with the ultimate aim of helping to fulfil their tripartite missions: teaching, research, and service. Published literature provides evidence that internationalisation dimensions have been gaining more prominent importance in Vietnamese higher education institutions (Welch, 2010; Nguyen, 2011). However, research on this field has been paid a little attention, especially the issue, how internationalisation is conceptualised and

implemented in the Vietnamese context, has not been investigated yet. This gap is well known in the research literature as “theoretical studies lag far behind practice” (Yang, 2002, p. 81).

Apart from a small volume of journal articles focusing on fragmented aspects of internationalisation of higher education (Duong, 2013; Dang, 2011; Nguyen et al., 2016) and one case study of a national leading university undertaken six years ago (Nguyen, 2011), there is no empirical research on this field in both theoretical and practical aspects. This leads to the fact that lack of systematic and comprehensive understandings on this issue could create ineffective implementation and reduce opportunities to gain benefits from internationalisation efforts.

Further, I am interested in this research field as I have been participating in a number of internationalisation programmes. They are both a short-term programme with Certificate of Proficiency in English & IT Skills for two months and long-term programmes with a master’s degree and doctoral programme overseas. In addition, I have been working with the Vietnamese higher education system for more than ten years as a lecturer and as a coordinator of the quality audit division. Performing in these roles, I have been familiar with the policies and practices of higher education in Vietnam, which serves as a background in understanding the research’s phenomenon.

#### **1.4 Research Aims and Objectives**

The main aim of this research is to investigate internationalisation of higher education at two universities in Vietnam. The study chooses one regional and one provincial university in the Vietnamese context as the research sites and adopts a mixed methods approach for data collection and analysis. The study's specific research objectives are twofold:

- To review the literature in order to develop a theoretical understanding of internationalisation of higher education in general and in Vietnam in particular;
- To explore the conceptual understandings, the rationales, the practices, risks, challenges and future priorities of internationalisation in these two universities from the perspectives of their institutional stakeholders (the academics).

### **1.5 Research Question and Sub-questions**

The overarching Research Question for this thesis is:

**What are the key characteristics of internationalisation of higher education in Vietnamese universities?**

In light of these aims and this research question, the project seeks to analyse the views of Vietnamese academics in relation to the following sub-research questions:

1. How do academics at two universities in Vietnam perceive the concept of internationalisation of higher education?
2. What are the perceived institutional rationales for internationalisation at Vietnamese universities?
3. How internationalisation strategies/programmes are being implemented at Vietnamese universities?
4. What are the institutional risks associated with the promotion of internationalisation?
5. What are the obstacles faced by Vietnamese universities in implementing internationalisation?
6. Which aspects of internationalisation strategy should be prioritised in the future?

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

This research significantly contributes to the development of internationalisation of higher education studies in developing countries, particularly in Vietnam, where there is still theoretical and empirical absence in research.

In particular, this research provides valuable insights into how internationalisation of higher education is interpreted and implemented in two specific universities in Vietnam, in which little research has been conducted. The collection of original data including interviews, surveys, and analysis of policy sources from the specific case studies provides a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of internationalisation from within each university in its unique settings. Therefore, it contributes more information on the topic, which has been western-dominated.

Finally, this study is the first attempt at conceptualising the internationalisation of higher education in the Vietnamese context, a start to trace and develop internationalisation theories in a developing country. More importantly, the study contributes to potential benefits for the practices and future research of this field in other developing countries with similar contexts.



## 1.7 The Methodological Approach

The research philosophies adopted for this study are pragmatism and interpretivist (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p.41; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.23). They will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

The approach employed in this study is a combined use of both deductive (theory-driven) and inductive (data-driven) approaches (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010, p. 11). In this combination, the context of justification (associated with deductive logic) and the context of discovery (related to inductive reasoning) are both recognised (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010, p. 11).

Further, a multiple case study strategy is considered as a suitable strategy to conduct a comprehensive study on internationalisation of higher education in a specific context (Yin, 2014, p. 57). The case study aims to understand the case in depth, and in its natural setting (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 289).

The study selects two typical types of Vietnamese public universities, namely, a regional and provincial university. The central government administers the regional university while the provincial university is managed by the provincial government (Dao, 2015, p. 746). The choice of these two case-study universities was based on their distinguished history, foundation, size features, missions and visions as well as the feasibility of access.

The study employs a mixed method approach in which both qualitative and quantitative research was conducted. The reason for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data in this study is to bring together the strengths of both forms of research (Punch, 2014, p. 309; Robson, 2011, p. 165). The use of quantitative data provides a general sense of academics' attitudes towards internationalisation of higher education in both institutions (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p.77). The qualitative evidence allows the thesis to explore even more closely participants' perceptions, allowing for contradictions and differences to emerge (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010, p. 11). The design for this project is adapted from the model of Creswell & Clark (2011, p. 69), which is shown in Figure 1.1.



**Figure 1.1** Convergent mixed methods design

Source: Adapted from (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 69) - Developed by the author for this study

Figure 1.1 illustrates a convergent mixed methods model, a one-phase design in which the researcher simultaneously and separately conducts qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 77).

### **1.8 Ethical Issues**

The Ethics Committee of the University of Portsmouth has approved this research (Approval No: 14/15:66). The Ethics Committee was content to grant a favourable, ethical opinion of the study on 25 November 2015.

### **1.9 Outline of the Thesis**

Following this introduction, thesis continues to be in eight further substantive chapters:

**Chapter 2** establishes the key theories used for interpreting and explaining internationalisation in practice at the case-study institutions. First, globalisation and its relationship with internationalisation of higher education will be outlined and discussed. Then, a number of relevant aspects related to the research questions will be examined, from the approaches, conceptual developments, rationales, strategies along with the accompanying threats and challenges of internationalisation.

**Chapter 3** covers the research problem, the relationship between internationalisation and the Vietnamese higher education system. Then, it highlights internationalisation programmes/activities, risks, and challenges in the Vietnamese context.

**Chapter 4** introduces two universities in which the study was conducted.

**Chapter 5** presents the research paradigm, methodology and research methods chosen for this study.

**Chapters 6, 7 and 8** present the empirical findings based on the analysis and interpretation of data, followed by extended discussion using the theoretical lenses presented in Chapter 2. Sequentially, Chapter 6 provides answers to the first and second research questions, Chapter 7 provides answers to the third research question, and Chapter 8 provides answers to the fourth, fifth and sixth research questions.

**Chapter 9** summarises the findings given in chapter 6, 7, 8 and then lists out the recommendations for further improvement of internationalisation in these two cases. In addition, it encompasses the originality of the research, limitations of the study and identifies the possibilities of future research.

## **Chapter 2. Literature Review**

This chapter begins with the characteristics of globalisation and its relationship with higher education internationalisation. Then, the chapter discusses the theoretical framework of internationalisation of higher education, which would be utilised for the analysis of internationalisation in two Vietnamese universities.

### **2.1 Globalisation and Internationalisation of Higher Education**

#### **2.1.1 Globalisation**

##### ***Definition***

The term globalisation first entered the English-speaking world in the 1960s (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012, p. 5) in the field of international economics (Shields, 2013, p. 62). Then, globalisation accelerated in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Shields, 2013, p. 62), and has permeated the contemporary world as a whole in this 21st century (Enders & Fulton, 2002, p. 4). Global engagement varies between different nations and individual institutions, a two-way street, or occasionally multiple-directional flows (Marginson, 2006, p. 2). Its multidimensional character, as Grifbosz and Hak (2015) identified, encompasses three interconnected aspects: political, economic and socio-cultural. Globalisation is a rather subjective term as it is interpreted in a myriad of ways according to the norms, context, and perspectives of policy makers, scholars, or the public (Knight, 2014). This would lead to the fact that, in the two previous decades, there has been vast and multifaceted definitions and interpretations of the term in both merit and demerit ways (Bagley & Portnoi, 2014, p. 5).

When looking at the majority of discussion, there are two tendencies in conceptualising the idea of globalisation: the spatial view and the interaction process view (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012, p. 5).

From the spatial perspective, globalisation refers to the world as a single place where time and space are compressed (Harvey, 1990, p. 260) and where the closer integration of the countries and people of the world have been acknowledged (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, & Perraton, 1999, p. 55). Hudzik (2013) also views globalisation in this dimension as he emphasises that globalisation has transformed the entire world into a small village where every aspect of society flows freely to minimise the gap between the local and long-distant people. Globalisation, in this tendency, is understood as eliminating all geographical distances between and among countries in order to develop a highly interconnected world. Referring this

geographic conceptualisation to higher education, institutions are seen as the centre of this compressed world (Suarez-Orozco & Qin-Hillard, 2004).

From the process viewpoint, globalisation is defined as growing social interaction and connectivity among people around the world, creating economic, social, cultural, political, environmental, scientific and technological interdependence (Marginson, 2006). This type of interdependence has been described by Castells as a ‘network society’ (1997) thanks to the advancement of information technology, telecommunications and science (as cited in Mok, 2013, p. 1). In short, due to the impact of globalisation, the world has moved towards greater interdependence regarding knowledge, culture, trade, and communication (Callan, 2000, p. 17)

Generally, the principle lying at the centre and heart of all understandings of the concept is about “the widening, deepening and speeding up of interconnectedness” (Held et al., 1999, p. 15).

In the sphere of higher education, globalisation can be understood as “the economic, political, and societal forces pushing 21st century higher education toward greater international involvement” (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 290). It is a process of creating a single unified world system which enables to eliminate differences between educational systems in the world and increasing the adaptation of educational systems to the demands of the global economy (Cabelkova, 20015, as cited in Stukalova, Shishkin & Stukalova, 2015).

### ***A theoretical perspectives and its relationship with higher education***

Steger (2003) identifies four broad interconnected dimensions of globalisation: the economic, political, ideological and cultural one. These dimensions are related to one another, since the economy, ideology and politics are a big part of the cultural fabric of any individual nations. According to Steger (2003), the economic dimension of globalisation refers to the intensification and interconnectedness of economic activities, increased monetary and trade flows, for example, the increasing importance of the World Trade Organisation, the GATS or the liberalisation of trade. The political dimension emphasises the intensification of political interrelations between nations across the world. The ideological dimension deals with the systems of shared values about globalisation across different parts of the world. The cultural dimension of globalisation focuses on the intensification of cultural flows across the globe, such as the rise of a homogenised world culture, for instance, the expanding use of English as the language of choice for international business and commerce and as the dominant medium of learning and instruction

in universities. These four dimensions are further developed through the lens of theoretical perspectives as discussed by Maringe (2012). Maringe (2012) outlines four globalisation theories, which are the external impetus for accelerated institutional internationalisation. They are mainly related to four aspects of world society.

According to Maringe (2012), the first is ‘world systems theory’, which divides the world into three broad layers. At the core are twenty super- rich nations with nuclear capability and technological advancement. These countries dictate to the rest of the world and control world economic ideas and financial systems as they own key international financial institutions. Referring this theory to higher education, the core refers to elite universities, which rarely enter into partnership agreements with universities that do not belong to the same league, a strategy for the preservation of purity and status. The second layer of the system is a group of poor countries that still suffer from poverty and underdevelopment. These countries supply raw materials and labour to rich countries in the core at prices that are dictated by the rich. In between the core and the periphery is a group of countries, which are neither very rich nor very poor. The world systems theory thus explains the flows of capital, goods and services across nations and legitimates inequality, which defines the fundamental organisation of society. This would imply that there still exists the exploitation of the ‘South’ by the ‘North’ and the gap between the rich and the poor (Leask, 2013). Soudien observed (2005, as cited in Leask, 2013), “globalisation is being experienced as a discriminatory and even oppressive force in many places”. As Goodman (1984) shows, this theory has influenced the educational field through internationalisation, where Western educational models define “what is knowledge and who is qualified to understand and apply that knowledge” (p. 13). Mok (2007) claims that some have cautioned against re-colonisation and a continuation of oppression through the reproduction of Western policies and practices in higher education. In this aspect, Egron-Polak and Marmolejo (2017) identified that international collaborative relations among nations served primarily as a means of structuring and maintaining the power relations within the colonial context. Therefore, it is argued that the political and diplomatic purposes dictated the relationships and patterns of cooperation between nations and by this way, the geopolitical features were never denied.

The second, according to Boli and Thomas (1997), is ‘world polity theory’, which is argued that political systems across the world increasingly become isomorphism and are legitimated on the basis of a small set of values such as democracy and democratic governance

and diminish sovereignty while increasing subordination to regional or transnational governmental organisations. According to this theory, Grifbosz and Hak (2015) claimed, globalisation declines the importance of states and damages existing political conditions, as a result, autonomous actions of single states become ineffective. Evidently, for example, Zha (2003, p. 249) identified that the national education system of many countries could no longer perform their functions under the control of their national government only, but under increasingly influenced convergence of global or regional regime (also see Green, 1999, p. 55).

A third theoretical perspective of globalisation, according to Robertson (1992), is ‘world culture theory’, which assumes that the world is gradually becoming culturally homogeneous and that Western cultural influence and transformation is the central. Shields (2013, p. 62) acknowledged that the new global context has been forcing higher education institutions to reconsider their mission, tasks, and responsibilities in order to improve their relevance around ‘international standard and model’. In other words, globalisation, which is known as “an increasingly global, multi-cultural and knowledge-intensive world” (Stier, 2010, p. 340), is pushing universities to change in a comparable way (Shields, 2013, p. 62).

The final theory, according to Friedman (2006), is the ‘neo-liberal theory’ of globalisation, which is about freeing trade between countries so that trade relations operate based on free market principles. In higher education, the free market is based on the notion of profit, which has resulted in the mechanisation of knowledge under conditions that subject its content, structures and modes of accessibility to the pressures of a global market (Prasad, 2007). Based on this theory, Maringe (2012) acknowledges that universities no longer generate knowledge for its own sake nor for society but they are increasingly partnering with commercial and business corporations to create knowledge that has economic value, in some cases, seeking to generate profit using minimum resources. The main argument here is that universities are in no doubt that they operate in a series of competitive markets - local, regional, national and global levels (Jackson & Lund, 2000). This creates a growing concern for efficiency and quality, value for money and public accountability of higher education, which no longer simply shapes society through its knowledge contribution but it is rather shaped by society through the knowledge specification (Weber & Duderstadt, 2008).

### **2.1.2 Globalisation and internationalisation**

The internationalisation and globalisation processes are modelled as key important factors that construct the development of higher education systems (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012, p. 4). The inseparable dynamic interplay between internationalisation and globalisation has become a fashionable topic for an extensive body of literature, creating confusion between the two terms (Kälvemark & van der Wende, 1997; Scott, 1998; Altbach & Knight, 2007). Among the scholars, Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley's (2009) and Knight's (2003) proposition are the most comprehensive and cited one.

According to Altbach et al., (2009, p. 7), globalisation, on the one hand, as an economic, political and cultural phenomenon, has profoundly influenced on the development and the role of higher education. However, on the other hand, these authors regarded internationalisation of higher education as a possible response to globalisation, a way to make higher education institutions more efficient in the globalisation context. The way here, these authors refer to specific policies and initiatives of individual academic, institutions, systems, or countries that deal with global trends. Straightforwardly, internationalisation is identified as what higher education institutions do while globalisation is about what affects higher education (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012, p. 3).

In addition, according to Knight (2003):

Internationalisation is changing the world of higher education and globalisation is changing the world of internationalisation (2003, p. 1).

In her description, globalisation is a significant force, which shapes and decides the route of internationalisation. This thesis follows these arguments for the empirical discussion as to understand the nature and process of internationalisation, it is necessary to involve this process in meeting the challenges of globalisation.

### **2.1.3 The historical development of internationalisation of higher education**

The picture of internationalisation is emerging more complex, diversified with different aspects, a process in a rapid evolution (Knight, 2008). Over years, the international dimension of higher education is not only becoming increasingly important (Knight, 2004), but also continues to take new forms and approaches (Egron-Polak, 2012). The history of the internationalisation of higher education dates back to the Middle Ages and Renaissance

period when a university had already been a fully acknowledged international institution (Yang, 2002, p.183).

Evidently, Altbach & Teichler recognised, “universities started as genuinely international institutions” (2001, p.6). Altbach (2004, p. 4) identified that in the Middle Ages, universities used a common language (Latin) and had international teachers and students. Maringe (2009) also wrote,

The first medieval university teachers were known for their travels between nations to disseminate knowledge and seek new forms of understanding from other places (p.555).

According to Maringe (2009), this traveling phenomenon is exemplified as a medieval model of internationalisation of higher education, which helps teachers to obtain better leisure, friends, information and study.

In general, those key historical events above suggest that universities have always been operating within a global context (Altbach, 2004) where the cosmopolitan values and universal knowledge has been appreciated for sustaining institutional quality from a very early period (Huang, 2007).

The contemporary university was born of the nation state, not of medieval civilisation, and it was only in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries (Enders & Fulton, 2002, p. 4). According to the finding of Ender and Fulton (2002), three quarters of all universities, even in Europe, were established in the last century, half of them since 1945, after the World War II. A significant shift of internationalisation started after World War II with a dramatically increasing expansion of international educational exchange programmes (Egron-Polak, 2012, p. 57).

Egron-Polak (2012) provided one example of this dramatical change related to the formation of International Association of Universities (IAU) in 1950, comprising a network of 150 universities. The principle for operating this organisation is about ensuring international cooperation and improving international linkages and understandings among them. This was clearly emphasised in its organisation’s message “All these means to build international ‘bridges’ were viewed as both a necessary and natural way for universities and other higher education institutions to repair a world profoundly damaged and scarred by two World Wars” (p. 57).

According to Huang (2007, p. 423), internationalisation of higher education during this period was divided into two flows: one group applied the model of the Soviet Union and the



other group adapted the American model. In Huang's (2007) observation, both groups internationalised their higher education through mobility of people and stimulating national programs of cooperation, development and technical assistance between individual countries. Knight and De Wit (1995) point out the difference between these two groups in their ways regarding internationalisation. In one hand, the Soviet Union, according to Knight and de Wit (1995), expanded its political, economic, social and academic control over Central and Eastern Europe and the Third World in a way that brings academic freedom and autonomy, international cooperation and exchange. On the other hand, the USA, quickly followed by Western Europe, Canada and Australia, invested a large development fund into higher education systems in Asia, Latin America and Africa. North-South relations dominated all internationalisation strategies in higher education in the period 1950-1985, in Europe (East and West), the USA, Canada and Australia. The conclusion for this period is that it is a one-way relationship with the diplomacy purpose: simple technical assistance to the third world, flows of students from South to North, and faculty and funds from North to South with a great impact, both negative (e.g. brain-drain) and positive (e.g. better understanding and knowledge) (Knight & De Wit, 1995). Clearly, this leads to the developments of the developing world, expansion of Western models and knowledge and the changing role of universities as a generator of human resources rather than just limited as a centre of scholarly study.

However, since the 1990s, according to Alemu's (2014, p. 3), strategies of internationalisation of higher education have moved from the traditional focus on 'mobility' to 'internationalisation at home', which encompasses internationalisation of curricula, the establishment of international organisations, or consortia of universities at both regional and global levels. The international aspects of higher education, according to de Wit's (2002), started to include the export feature of higher education systems from Europe to the rest of the world (the Americas, Asia and Africa).

In the beginning of the 21st century, as Knight (2008, p. 11) shows, an international trade law treats higher education as a tradable commodity subject to a multilateral set of trade rules. In Europe and in the United States, internationalisation of higher education is more driven by a commercial and entrepreneurial spirit. This is manifested, for example, in policies adopting full-cost tuition fees for international students and profit-oriented transnational programmes undertaken in the United Kingdom and Australia (Huang, 2006). A brief summary for this

transformation, as Urbanovič and Wilkins (2013) indicate, is that internationalisation strategy once focused on student and staff mobility or international cooperation and collaboration for development assistance purposes, but now has widely concerned with curriculum relevance, institutional quality, prestige, competitiveness, and innovation potential. This consequence stems from the fact that internationalisation of higher education in many countries has been strongly influenced by the rapidity of economic globalisation, advancement of information technology, and introduction of market oriented mechanisms. This leads to the changes in motives, from historical, political, cultural and academic perspectives towards economic one. Perhaps, internationalisation of higher education is still heading on its way- from non-profit to profit business (Knight, 2008).

## **2.2 The Conceptual Framework of Internationalisation of Higher Education**

It is important to note that the landscape of internationalisation is not developing in similar ways in higher education throughout the world. There are different approaches and emphases (Aerden, Decker, Divis, Frederiks, & de Wit, 2013, p. 57).

### **2.2.1 Approaches to internationalisation of higher education**

According to Knight and De Wit (1995, p. 16), there are four major approaches to internationalisation of higher education: Activity, Competency, Ethos and Process. In 2004, Knight added two more new categories, which are called as Rationales and Cross-border. Simultaneously, Knight also changed 'Ethos' into 'At Home' category. According to her explanation, the change of typology is because 'At Home' concentrates on the intercultural/international dimension of a campus. She also changed Competency category into Outcome category; however, for this study, Competency approach is more appropriate. While each approach has a key aspect, which distinguishes it from the others, it is important to think of them as different strands forming different aspects of internationalisation.

**Activity approach.** This approach describes the international dimension as categories or types of activities. This approach often leads to rather fragmented and uncoordinated programmes to internationalisation, whereby the relationship, impacts, and benefits between and among the internationalisation activities are not taken into consideration (Knight, 1997, p. 7). There are three underlying traits related to this framework: it heads toward an ideal goal that differentiates one action from another; it acts through artefacts (tools, language); and it includes societal aspects within its accomplishment (Özturgut, Cantu, Pereira, & Ramón, 2014, p. 32).

**Competency approach.** The competency approach is more closely related to the development of knowledge, skills, interests, values, and attitudes in students, faculty, and staff (Knight & De Wit, 1995, p. 16). Therefore, its emphasis is placed on the human element of the academic community such as students, faculty or administrative staff. Central to this approach is how generation and transfer of knowledge help to develop international competencies in the personnel of higher education institutions (Zha, 2003, p. 250). Therefore, in this approach, the development of internationalised curricula and programmes is considered as a crucial means towards developing appropriate competencies for students in their future employability (Zha, 2003, p. 250).

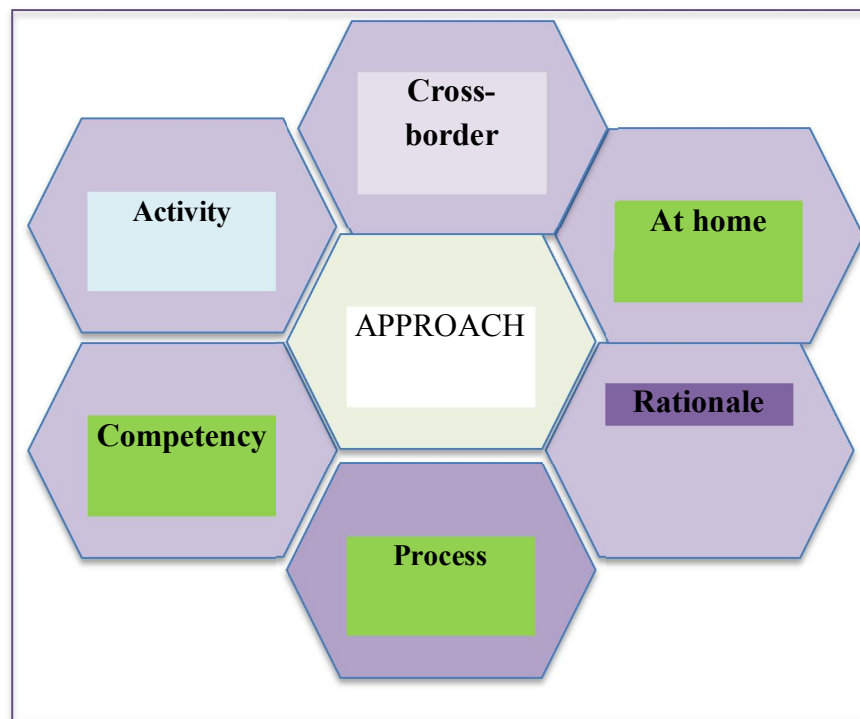
**Process approach.** Fundamental to the process approach is that both organisational structures and academic activities are involved (Knight, 1999, p. 203). In this approach, integration or infusion of an international, intercultural dimension into teaching, research and service functions of the institution are facilitated through a combination of a wide range of activities, policies, and procedures (Zha, 2003, p. 250).

**Rationale approach.** According to Knight (2004), this approach is mainly related to why internationalisation is important for a higher education institution to become more international. Fundamental to this approach is that internationalisation is described in association with the primary motivations or rationales driving it. Knight (2004) also points out that the rationales driving internationalisation are becoming more explicit and changing, which are discussed in detail in section 2.2.3.

**At home approach.** Internationalisation is interpreted to be the creation of a culture or climate on campus that promotes and supports international/intercultural understanding and focus on campus based activities (Knight, 2004).

**Cross-border approach.** Internationalisation is seen as the cross-border delivery of education to other countries through a variety of delivery modes (face-to-face, distance learning, e learning) and through different administrative arrangements (franchises, twinning) (Knight, 2004).

Those approaches discussed above underline various ways in understanding internationalisation. These approaches help to describe and assess the manner in which internationalisation is being conceptualised and implemented. Therefore, different approaches as shown in Figure 2.1 reflect different ways of adopting and developing internationalisation dimensions (Knight, 1997, p. 6).



**Figure 2.1** Approaches to internationalisation of higher education

Source: Developed by the author for this study

According to De Wit (2002, p. 106), the meaning, rationales, and contents or activities of internationalisation are connected to each other in one way or another. Each of these aspects will be discussed in turn:

### **2.2.2 Meaning and definition**

The question here is what does internationalisation mean and what are the themes that it focuses on. According to de Wit, Deca and Hunter (2015, p. 5), the first use of 'internationalisation' in

relation to higher education was noticed in publications in the 1970s. In Knight's (2008) work, the debate around what internationalisation means has been on-going since the mid-1980s as she asserts:

Internationalisation is not a new term nor is the debate over its definition new. Internationalisation has been used for years in political science and governmental relations, but its popularity in the education sector has really only soared since the early eighties (2008, p. 2).

What is new is that the international dimension of higher education not only has become increasingly important (Knight, 2004, p. 5; Altbach, 2002, p. 29) but also continue to take on new forms and approaches and has evolved in various ways (Elkin, Farnsworth & Templer (2008, p. 240). As de Wit and Hunter (2015) indicate, these various forms and approaches stems from "constant force of the economic and social globalisation and the increased importance of knowledge" (p. 2).

It is of note that, according to the study of Marginson and Sawir (2006), during the 1960s, 'international cooperation,' 'international relations,' or 'international education' were used instead of 'internationalisation'. Both Knight (2005) and de Wit (2002) argue that the term 'international education' reflects a more concrete form of the international dimension in education, such as an international programme or activity, whereas 'internationalisation' refers to 'a more strategic process' of introducing an international dimension into all aspects of education. De Wit (2013, p. 19) points out that the transition from 'international education' to 'internationalisation of (higher) education' is not known, but the term 'internationalisation' really took over from 'international education' in the 1990s. This shift is a reflection of the increasing importance of the international dimension in higher education and of the transformation from a marginal set of programs and activities to a more comprehensive process (de Wit, 2013, p. 19).

Over the last two decades, its expanding and evolutionary nature of meaning are synthesised and depicted in Table 2.1

**Table 2.1** Evolution of the definition of internationalisation of higher education

Scholar	Year	Level of Focus	Approaches	Definition of internationalisation
Arum & van de Water	1992	Institutional	Activities	“the multiple activities, programmes and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation” (p. 202)
Knight	1994	Institutional	Process	“the process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution”(p. 7)
Van der Wende	1997	National	Ethos	“any systematic effort aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of society, economy and labour markets”(p.19)
Söderqvist	2002	Institutional	Changing process	“ a change process from a national higher education institution leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to achieve the desired competencies” (p.29)
Knight	2003	Sectoral/ National	Process	“ the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education”(p. 2)
Teichler	2004	National	Changing process	“internationalisation can best be defined as the totality of substantial changes in the context and inner life of higher education relative to an increasing frequency of border-crossing activities amidst a persistence of national systems” (p. 22)
Hudzik	2014	Institutional	Ethos	“Commitment confirmed through action to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research and service missions of higher education enterprise...It is an institutional imperative not just a desirable possibility...It not only impacts all of campus life but the institution's external frames of reference, partnerships, and relations “ (p. 7).
De Wit & Hunter	2015	Institutional and national	Process	The intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions, and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society (p. 3)

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

As shown in Table 2.1, through the length of a timeline, there is a change in dimensions of internationalisation of higher education. This change is portrayed as a dynamic movement from fragmented international activities towards a process approach, which stems from the development of society and higher education itself (Knight, 1997, p. 5). For instance, de Wit depicted, "not only has an agreement not been reached on its meaning, but also its historical

dimensions, concepts, and strategic concepts; its relation to development in society and higher education in general, and regarding its status as an area of study and analysis" (2002, p. xv).

In brief, Brandenburg and De Wit (2011) attempt to sketch the most comprehensive evolution of higher education internationalisation notion in their work:

Over the last two decades, the concept of the internationalisation of higher education has moved from the fringe of institutional interest to the very core. In the late 1970s up to the mid-1980s, activities that can be described as internationalisation were usually neither named that way nor carried high prestige and were rather isolated and unrelated... In the late 1980s changes occurred: Internationalisation was invented and carried on, ever increasing its importance (p. 15).

The main argument here, as Brandenburg and De Wit (2011) describes, is that the concept of the internationalisation of higher education has moved from a minimalist, instrumental and static view to a view of internationalisation as a complex, all-encompassing and policy-driven process in the life of the university. Apparently, Knight (199), de Wit (2002), and Brandenburg and De Wit (2011) share a similar view regarding the evolution of the notions of internationalisation.

Firstly, internationalisation of higher education was a 'marginal phenomenon' until the mid-1980s (Wächter, 2003, p.6). It was largely interpreted as individual mobility, mainly students and scholars moving from one country to another. In the late 1980s, internationalisation was still characterised by mobility, but the scale and breadth became larger and more organised with the involvement of institutional and national levels. One typical example of this development is the Erasmus Programme, one of the largest European Union (EU) student exchange programmes established in 1987. The concept of internationalisation at this time had a tendency to be explained and defined in relation to categories or types of activities (Arum & van de Water, 1992). This activity approach looks at the international dimension as a series of specific activities or programmes (Zha, 2003, p. 250), which is considered as a rather fragmented and uncoordinated approach to internationalisation. This approach is reflected in the work of Arum and van de Water, (1992), who is the pioneer in defining this phenomenon "the multiple activities, programmes and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation" (1992, p. 202).

By the 1990s, the international activities of universities dramatically expanded in volume, scope, and complexity in response to the evolving needs, resources, and priorities of the institutions, driven by the influences of globalisation (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

Internationalisation has become a widespread and strategically important phenomenon in higher education (Teichler, 1999, p. 5; Vught, van der Wende & Westerheuden, 2002, p. 103). In this period, internationalisation processes began to take shape in Asia too (Mok, 2007, p. 433). The movement of people in search for new ideas and the movement of ideas to influence people in new places caused greater complexities and dimensions associated with the notion of internationalisation (Hudzik, 2014, p. 7). As a result, internationalisation has not been coined as a simple term; instead, it indeed takes into account the entire university (Teichler, 1999, p. 5). Knight defined:

Internationalisation of higher education is the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching/learning, research and service functions of the institution (1995, p. 7).

In Knight's definition, there are three significant features of the concept: internationalisation as a process; internationalisation as a response to globalisation; and internationalisation as including both international and local elements (de Wit, 2002, p. 11). This process approach values the changing forms of internationalisation in moving into the inner core of higher education functions (Teichler, 1999) and acknowledges the diversity of cultural, national, and global elements in the university's life (Knight, 1999, p. 203). This definition is considered as "a classic formulation of internationalisation at the institutional level in terms of its desired and intended effects" (de Wit, 2002, p. 105).

Being influenced by Knight, a series of more process-oriented definitions began to enter into the discussion of internationalisation of higher education, for example, Ellingboe (1998) and Schoorman (1999). Ellingboe, for instance, defines:

Internationalisation is the process of integrating an international perspective into a college or university system. It is an on-going, future-oriented, multidimensional, interdisciplinary, leadership driven vision that involves many stakeholders working to change the internal dynamics of an institution to respond and adapt appropriately to an increasingly diverse, globally focused ever-changing external environment (1998, p. 199).

This definition is more comprehensive and encompassing. It has asserted that internationalisation is a complex process and is involved or influenced by many stakeholders - that is significant. In a similar vein, Schoorman (1999) also defines:



On-going, counter hegemonic education process that occurs in an international context of knowledge and practice where societies are viewed as subsystems of a larger, inclusive world. The process of internationalisation at an educational institution entails a comprehensive, multifaceted programme of action that is integrated into all aspects of education (p. 21).

The full implication of Schoorman's view focuses on two key features: a continuous and on-going process and involving all university members and levels in a comprehensive and integrated way. However, in comparison among these three authors Knight (1995), Ellingboe (1998), and Schoorman (1999), there is not much difference as all portrayed internationalisation as the process of an integration of international dimensions, limiting itself to the surrounding primary functions of the institution. According to van der Wende (1997), this definition raises a limitation of an institutional-based definition because of the missing link between national policies for internationalisation and those for higher education. Hawawini (2011, p. 6) also criticised this definition as it just incorporates the international dimension into institutional functions rather than capturing the essence of a process as the ultimate goal for integrating into the global knowledge and learning networks. In general, the limitation of these process definitions can be summarised by Zha (2003):

No further goal of the process of internationalisation is indicated. This could suggest that internationalisation is an aim itself, while in many countries and settings it is rather seen as a means to achieve a wider goal, e.g. quality improvement, restructuring and upgrading of higher education systems and services (p. 249).

Therefore, van der Wende (1997) proposed his definition:

Any systematic, sustained effort aimed at making higher education more responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy, and labour markets (p.18).

In van der Wende's suggestion, internationalisation should be closely linked to the driving forces- the external environment, specifically globalisation. Knight (2003) also paid attention to van der Wende's suggestion and provided a revised definition:

Internationalisation at the national, sector and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education (2003, p. 2).

In this definition, Knight still focuses on the process but broadens the scope of internationalisation to three levels: the institutional, sector, and national levels (Stukalova et al., 2015, p. 276). It is apparent that this new definition takes into account of the realities, in which the national and sector levels become extremely important. What significant for this new definition is that the international dimension not only relates to all aspects of education, but also how its' role is in society (Knight, 2004).

Since the 21<sup>st</sup> century onwards, the volume and scale of international activities have dramatically expanded to a more comprehensive process. Internationalisation is becoming a key strategy at the institutional and national levels in most countries of the world (de Wit & Hunter, 2015, p. 2). The focus on the study of internationalisation of higher education, thus, shifted from defining the general meaning of internationalisation to looking at specific issues of higher education in relation to internationalisation, such as the strategic management, value added or rationales embedded (De Wit, 2011, p. 243). Internationalisation efforts in higher education, according to de Wit, Deca and Hunter (2015, p. 9), have tended to move away from input and output to a process and outcome-oriented approach. For example, Söderqvist incorporated these outcomes by defining internationalisation of higher education as:

A change process from a national higher education institution leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to achieve the desired competencies (2002, p. 29).

In the definition of Söderqvist, the central role of the international dimension to the higher education institution is highlighted, which ensures that students are prepared for an increasingly interconnected global society. However, Knight (2004) criticises this definition as it has rationales embedded in it and therefore has limited applicability to institutions and to countries that see internationalisation as broader than teaching and learning and the development of competencies. Although Knight also admits that it demonstrates an evolution of the institution-level definition, but it fails to achieve as a comprehensive definition.

In 2014, Hudzik presented a comprehensive internationalisation in his definition, which was expanded and developed from Knight's version. This comprehensive definition takes a strategic plan for internationalising all key missions and functions of the university as a whole:

Commitment confirmed through action to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research and service missions of higher education enterprise...It is an

institutional imperative not just a desirable possibility...It not only impacts all of campus life but the institution's external frames of reference, partnerships, and relations (p.7).

Central to Hudzik (2014) is that this comprehensive definition focuses on the planned, strategic integration of international, intercultural, and global dimensions into the ethos and outcomes of higher education. Hudzik's comprehensive internationalisation notion is criticised by de Wit (2015, p. 26) as he thought there are not many differences if comparing Hudzik's idea with the originally accepted definitions by Knight (1994, 2003). The focus is still "to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research and service missions of higher education enterprise" (2014, p. 7). However, it is acknowledged that Hudzik's such a broad interactive aspect of the definition can be seen in the usage of his word 'comprehensive internationalisation'. This calls for an attention to flag the important changes in scale, scope, and inter-connected behaviours of higher education systems via internationalisation for years to come. Building on the definition of Knight (2003), De Wit and Hunter (2015) also developed:

The deliberate process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions, and delivery of post-secondary education, to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society (p. 3).

De Wit and Hunter (2015) added the purposeful feature of the internationalisation process to their concept. This definition takes the human elements in emphasising the academic purposes of internationalisation for the community, not trade or commerce aims. According to De Wit & Hunter (2015), internationalisation of higher education should contribute to the innovation of teaching, learning, research and civic engagement.

In general, there is more similar than diverse among the existing internationalisation concepts (de Haan, 2014). Overall, various definitions attached to the term internationalisation illuminate three dominant common features: internationalisation is a process and not an event; its goal is to integrate people from different places, their cultures and knowledge systems; and internationalisation is beneficial and essential in most universities worldwide (Murphy, 2007, p. 170). However, according to de Haan (2014), the majority of definitions are still abstract and remote from actual internationalisation practices and as he wrote:

The current idea of purifying the concept can reflect a wish for theoretical development, but it does not match the "impurity" of daily institutional reality (p. 256).

What he would like to call for is to bring internationalisation a further step, more specific and practical, which is consistent with de Wit (2002)'s expectation:

A more focused definition is necessary if it is to be understood and treated with the importance that it deserves. Even if there is not agreement on a precise definition, internationalisation needs to have parameters if it is to be assessed and to advance higher education. This is why the use of a working definition in combination with a conceptual framework for internationalisation of higher education is relevant (p. 114).

Thus, according to the suggestion of (de Wit, 2013, p. 27), there should bring internationalisation a step further, which can indicate the similarities and differences among intercultural, international and global elements for example, or adding more other fundamental developments and values.

The next section will explicate in more details the objectives or rationales of internationalisation of higher education and which suits this study.

### **2.2.3 Rationales for internationalisation of higher education**

Central to the engagement of higher education institutions in internationalisation activities is the purpose. De Wit (2002) stated, “as the international dimension of higher education gains more attention and recognition, people tend to use it in the way that best suits their purpose” (p. 14). In fact, the vision of internationalisation is not complete if it does not cover the content “why” (Aerden et al., 2013, p. 62). For explanation, de Wit (1999) defines “Why” as motivations or the rationales for internationalisation of higher education. A better understanding of the rationales will contribute to a better understanding of what exactly it means to internationalise, and how to integrate the international dimension into higher education core missions (Ralyk, 2008, p. 8).

According to a body of work on internationalisation, the emphasis on rationales changed due to the force of globalisation, industry, technology, and trade. A common way of describing the change of internationalisation from the 1970 to the present day is the movement from ‘aid to trade.’ Before the 1990s, there is no evidence of a theoretical framework, which responds to this question “why internationalisation?” (De Wit, 2002, p.77). Since the 1990s, many scholars have developed the categorisation of rationales for internationalisation of higher education into framework (Knight & de Wit, 1995; de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2004).

In the past three decades, there are two typical methods used for categorising rationales, which reflect the growth of internationalisation of higher education. The first one is called the

framework of ‘traditional four categories’, which was originally proposed by de Wit and Knight (1995) and developed by de Wit (2002). The second one is a cluster of rationales grouped into the national and institutional level (Knight, 2004).

Firstly, according to Knight and de Wit (1995), these four main categories are defined as: academic, cultural/social, political and economic rationales. They reflect the link between the internationalisation process and its possible economic, political, socio-cultural and academic goals (van der Wende, 2001; Craciun, 2015). These four groups vary and are not entirely distinct or exclusive (Knight, 1994, p. 11).

The second one is related to the revised working definition by Knight (2003), which addresses the institutional and national level of internationalisation of higher education. The presented group of national and institutional rationales focuses more on the variety of players in the process of internationalisation (Knight, 2008). In fact, these two ways of classification are not exclusive to each other; the traditional four categories can be grouped into the national and institutional level and vice versa, which is shown in Table 2.2. There is no single rationale for internationalisation, and the reasons and motivations are linked to each other in a complementary or contradictory way as Knight argues:

Rationales are changing and closely linked to each other; they can be complementary or contradictory, especially as they can differ according to the interests of diverse stakeholder groups (1999, p. 205).

As depicted in Table 2.2, one rationale might be found under more than one category. This reflects the confusing nature of these rationales because a given rationale might serve more than one objective. Knight (2004) also argues that there is a blurring of the categories and that there is no difference between the national and the institutional rationales. All these rationales are depicted in Table 2.2 below:

**Table 2.2** Rationales driving internationalisation

Rationales	Existing	of emerging importance
<b>Academic</b>	Enhancement of quality International academic standards International dimension to research and teaching Extension of academic horizon Institution building Profile and status	National Level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Human resources development</li> <li>• Strategic alliances</li> <li>• Income generation/Commercial trade</li> <li>• Nation building/Institution building</li> <li>• Social-cultural development and mutual understanding</li> </ul> Institutional level <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• International branding and profile</li> <li>• Quality enhancement/International standards</li> <li>• Income generation</li> <li>• Student and staff development</li> <li>• Strategic alliances</li> <li>• Knowledge production</li> </ul>
<b>Economic</b>	Economic growth and competitiveness Labor market Financial incentives	
<b>Political</b>	Foreign policy National security Technical assistance Peace and mutual understanding National identity Regional identity	
<b>Social/Cultural</b>	National cultural identity Intercultural understanding Social and community development	

Source: Adapted from Knight (2008, p. 25) - Developed by the author of this study.

This section will discuss the traditional four-category approach of rationales, which is considered as the most suitable one for the analysis of this study. This choice was based on the suggestion of de Wit and Hunter (2015), “we cannot ignore the fact that internationalisation of higher education is also being challenged by increasingly profound social, economic, and cultural and political issues” (p. 3) and these challenges foster the importance of internationalisation in developing and modernising higher education institutions, especially in the Vietnamese context.

***Political rationale.*** The political rationale relates to the issues such as “national security, stability, national and regional identity as well as ideological influences” (de Wit, 2002, p. 86). Political rationales are more relevant to national and regional perspectives than to institutional level (Knight, 1997). Such politically motivated practices of internationalisation played a key role in World War II (1945) and during the Cold War (1947-1991) (de Wit, 2002).

In this dimension, internationalisation is considered as a form of “diplomatic investment in future political relations” with other countries (de Wit, 2002, p. 85). Knight (1997, p. 9)

acknowledged that the granting of scholarships as a form of diplomatic investment to foreign students, who are likely to become future leaders, has been seen as an effective way to develop an understanding and affinity for the sponsoring country. Although the political rationale still carries weight today, it is not as prominent as it was (Knight, 1999, p.18). In the International Association of Universities (IAU) (2003, 2005), reported by Knight (2003a, 2005) and (IAU, 2010) reported by Beelen (2011), the findings showed that the political rationale did not appear within the top 10 rationales within the studies. Thus, it is important to acknowledge that rationales keep abreast of the contemporary political and economic situations that a country or the world faces so that over the course of time, the importance of a specific rationale will undergo a rise or fall (Knight & de Wit, 1995).

Altbach and Knight (2007) found, “Traditional internationalisation is rarely a profit-making activity, though it may enhance the competitiveness, prestige, and strategic alliances of the college” (p. 293). However, due to the growing challenges and competition generated from processes of globalisation, coupled with rapid technological innovation and knowledge reinvention, the economic rationale has become more and more important since the 1990s onwards (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2008, pp. 30-31).

***Economic rationale.*** Globalisation and economic transformation has gradually driven higher education into a new wave of internationalisation - earning money for solving financial problems (Maringe & Woodfield, 2013, p. 3). Evidently, regarding the effects of predominantly economic drivers for internationalisation, as Wihlborg and Robson (2018) indicate, higher education institutions are changing rapidly in the structures, systems and functions in the struggle to be entrepreneurial and market relevant. Consequently, internationalisation of higher education has been shaped by the impact of economic globalisation externally and internally (Portnoi & Bagley, 2015).

Externally, the globalisation of economies and liberation of trades are seen as a significant contributing factor (Altbach & Knight, 2007). According to Altbach (2002), the World Trade Organisation (WTO), in particular, the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) has encouraged higher education to join the market. In the GATS negotiations, there is a consensus to consider higher education as the packaging of education; a commodity being marketed both nationally and internationally with a purchaser model, not a public responsibility model (De Vita & Case, 2003, p. 385). Thus, the international dimension of higher education became defined as

a “commodity or service to be traded across borders” (Knight, 2008, p.149) in the past two decades.

In addition to this, internationalisation of higher education can help to restore the national economic competence and competitiveness in the world (van der Wende, 1997; Altbach, 2002; de Wit, 2002; Enders, 2004; Stromquist, 2007). Internationalisation can be seen as a significant contributor in meeting the demands of skilled human resources for the international competitiveness of the nation (de Wit, 1999). Globalisation requires graduates who can compete with people from other countries and are able to work in other countries. Thus, various strategies are implemented by nations and institutions such as research-related activities, educational related activities, extra-curricular activities, or institutional services via various contacts and cooperation with other countries (Knight & de Wit, 1995). These activities not only have been happening in Europe or Western countries but also in Asian and Australian regions as well (Mok et al., 2000 cited by Mok, 2007, p. 4).

Internally, because of government budget cuts, many higher education institutions have internationalised as a matter of revenue generation via various private resources, research funding, tuition fees, and international student recruitment (de Wit, 2002). For example, Altbach and Knight (2007, p. 292) noted that many countries recruit international students for the economic reason by charging high fees including Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States. In general, the main criticism of this economic motive is that the university is motivated to make money largely by recruiting international students with full tuition fee (Altbach, 2013).

With the increasing orientation toward the economic motive, is internationalisation of higher education contributing to the quality improvement of teaching, research or achievement of international academic standards?



***Academic rationale.*** The academic rationale includes objectives related to the aims and functions of higher education. Firstly, this rationale focuses on educationally oriented aspects of internationalisation concerning exchange and sharing of ideas, cultures, knowledge, and values (Knight, 2013, p. 88). As observed by Knight and de Wit (1995), the pursuit of knowledge in the modern and globalised world requires vast resources, which are not all available at any one university. Therefore, international cooperation between higher education institutions becomes a necessity.

Leask (2013) argues that it is necessary for the students of today to access knowledge and wisdom from all parts of the world. In this way, university students could understand and appreciate the worldwide-connected reality and develop a wide range of graduate attributes that are needed in a job market with global character (Barrie, 2006, p. 219). Regarding graduate attributes, according to Rizvi and Lingard (2010, p. 23), are not only about employability, but also about the development of the whole person as ‘social and human beings’ as well as ‘economic beings’.

Furthermore, internationalisation of higher education should be promoted as a means to improve the quality of education. Knight argues:

“it is assumed that by enhancing the international dimension of teaching, research and service, there is value added to the quality of our higher education systems” (1999, p.20).

According to Knight (1999), internationalisation represents as a tool for strengthening the quality of education or enriching other academic benefits. Both internationalisation and quality development are taken into account and this benefit is considered as an important factor in the development of higher education. The principle for achieving this purpose is that internationalisation is considered to be central to the mission of the institution (Knight, 1999, p. 20). Through internationalisation of higher education, a positive change can be gained such as strengthening the main core activities of the institution, enhancing the human, technical or management infrastructure, or allowing further initiatives to be developed (Knight & de Wit, 1995).

Another objective could be seen in the form of the international visibility and reputation of an institution. For this reason, many universities are trying hard to achieve international recognition as a world-class university, not just Western countries (Knight 1997, 1999; Zha, 2003; Pan, 2013). The proliferation of international university rankings, such as the Academic

Ranking of World Universities originally founded in 2003 or the Ranking Iberoamericano, released for the first time in 2010, has increased pressure on institutions (Hazelkorn, 2013). In fact, higher education institutions in developing countries are also under the urgent need to meet the international standards set by their elite peers in the West (Chan & Lo, 2008). Many nations of East Asia and the Pacific region over the last decade have reformed their higher education systems dramatically, centring on such notions as enhancing the quality in line with universally accepted standards (Mok & Welch, 2003).

In addition to this, the importance of research to the enhancement of an institution should also be taken into account (Zolfaghari, Sabran, Zolfaghari, 2009, p. 4). According to van der Wende (2007, p. 279), research helps HEIs to become more competitive in the global market as international research plays a significant role in the international rankings domain and academic reputation. More importantly, universities are by nature of their commitment to advancing human knowledge (Yang, 2002, p. 85). Academic study needs an international approach in research to stimulate critical thinking and enquiry about the complexity of issues and interests on the relations among nations, regions and interest groups (Yang, 2002, p. 85).

***Cultural and social rationale.*** The acknowledgment of culture and ethics within and between countries is considered as a strong rationale for the internationalisation of a nation's higher education system (Knight, 1994, p.11). First, the cultural rationale concentrates on the role and place of the country's own culture and language. The cultural rationale focuses on an effort to preserve cultural diversity among countries and plays a counterbalancing role against the homogenising power of globalisation.

This cultural rationale is based on the view that the “homogenising effects of globalisation” (Knight, 1997, p. 11) needs to be resisted and the culture, as well as the language of nations, needs to be respected.

De wit (2002, p. 23) wrote:

The most important goal for internationalisation of the higher education is to extend the values and principles of the national culture of the countries to the world community.

This view places particular emphasis on the preservation of national culture, and also respect for diversity (Zha, 2003). Altbach and Peterson (1998) also asserted, “To understand another

country or region you have to know its history, language, economy, and culture-not just global issues and trends...” (p. 36)

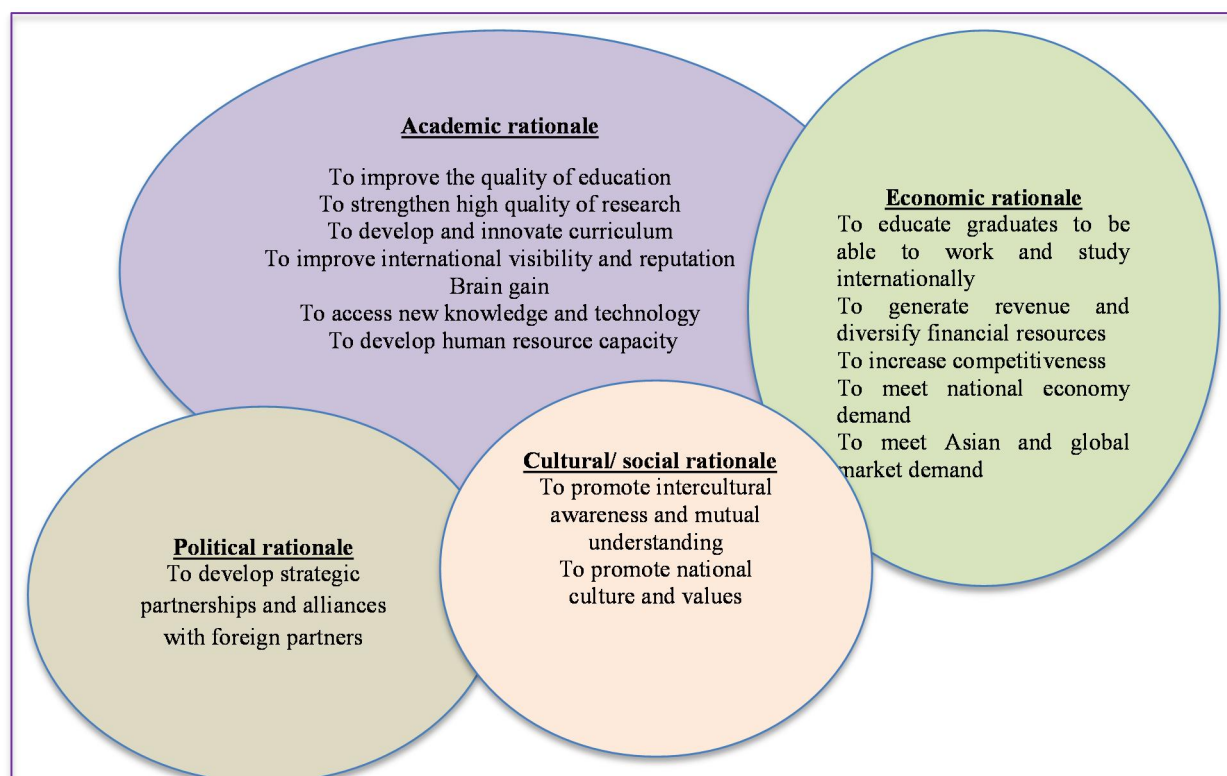
Another feature of this rationale is the preparation of graduates with a strong knowledge and skill in intercultural relations and communication as Altbach asserts:

Colleges and universities are asked to prepare tomorrow’s citizens not for a single career but for a life of unpredictable velocity and volatility. Simultaneously, they are asked to produce graduates who are capable of communication across borders and citizens who are invested with the capacity to navigate a transparent, permeable world (2002, p.13).

Apparently, Altbach (2002) has argued that internationalisation helps students to examine their implicit and explicit beliefs about whose well-being matters, and to develop a more globalised sense of responsibility and citizenship. According to Räsänen (2007, p. 26), creating international awareness among students is increasingly considered as an importance as global citizenship is expected to understand the interdependence of the various parts of the world. The main argument for this cultural aspect is that, as Leask (2013) indicates, “A university education is not just about training for demands of professional practice in a globalised world. The moral responsibilities that come with local, national, and global citizenship are also important” (p.111).

So, in principle there is no doubt that all the rationales of internationalisation discussed above primarily based on three suggested ideologies of Stier (2004, p. 85), which are classified as idealism, instrumentalism, and educationalism. According to Stier (2010), these categories are not applied separately but often vacillated among them. In terms of idealism, Stier (2004) points out that through international academic cooperation, higher education can contribute to the creation of a more democratic, fair and equal world. Based largely on Western value systems, this leads to the fact that such education will reduce the likelihood of conflict between nations and cultures. From the instrumentalist perspective, internationalising higher education is seen as a global commodity for meeting the demands of the capitalist world. This particular type of ideology underpins the economic rationales for internationalisation, in which the primary objectives are to ensure a sufficient workforce and to facilitate the mobility of labour force. Further, internationalisation may be a response to enrich the overall academic experiences of both students and teaching staff. This particular type of ideology underpins the academic rationales, in which the fundamental objectives are about personal growth and self-actualisation (Stier, 2004).

Indeed, any international plans should not only consist of international strategies but also reflect the suitable features and expectations of the local and national community (Childress, 2009, p. 304). It is acknowledged that internationalisation is a very complex process, driven by a dynamic and constantly evolving combination of political, economic, social cultural and academic rationales (de Wit et al., 2015). However, there is no framework that fits all institutions (Tauechel, 2015, as cited in de Wit et al., 2017). Each university has to find the most suitable objectives for internationalising their programs and organisation. For this study, as the case-study institutions based on the Vietnamese context, a developing country, in which internationalisation remains lagging behind, some common motivations from literature relevant to the analyses of the internationalisation of higher education for this thesis were chosen. Hence, they are summarised and depicted in Figure 2.2:



**Figure 2.2** Rationales for this study

Source: Developed by the author of this study

This research explores the perceived driving motives for internationalisation at the institutional level by academic staff, who are involved in the internationalisation activities of those two case-study universities. The best situation is when there is harmony among the

academics regarding the expected motives and especially when these motives are even reflected in the respective institutional policies and strategies. This would make the internationalisation process go smoothly with least obstructions.

#### **2.2.4 Strategies and strategic focus for integrating the international dimension in a higher education institution**

The landscape of internationalisation is not developing in similar ways in higher education throughout the world, but with different emphasis and approaches (Aerden et al., 2013, p. 57). Hence, internationalisation can be implemented in many ways, depending on the characteristics of the disciplines and institutions. The programmes or activities of internationalisation can vary greatly in practice. Such diversity should be encouraged (Aerden et al., 2013, p. 62) as Altbach & Knight (2007) argue, “Internationalisation involves many choices” (p. 291).

These options, in the quotation of Altbach and Knight, signify that internationalisation strategies are filtered by the specific internal context of the university, by the types of universities and how they are embedded nationally (de Wit, 2013, p. 14). Knight (2008, p. 21) proposed the various levels of internationalisation strategies and the need to address the relationship and integration among them. According to Knight (1997) and Knight & De Wit (1995), internationalisation comprises two essential complementary components: programme strategies and organisational strategies. While the programme strategy permeates various academic initiatives in teaching, learning and research, the organisational one comprises organisational initiatives to facilitate and institutionalise international dimensions through management and operating systems (Delgado-Márquez, Hurtado-Torres & Bondar, 2011).

**Programme strategies.** Knight and De Wit (1995, pp. 17-21) classified all of internationalisation programmes into four categories: (1) research-related activities, (2) education-related activities, (3) extra-curricular activities and institutional services and (4) activities related to technical assistance and development cooperation. Knight (1997, pp. 14-15) categorised them into (1) academic programmes, (2) research and scholarly activities, (3) extracurricular activities and (4) external relations and service both domestically and offshore. The change of ‘technical assistance and development cooperation’ category into ‘external relations and services’ category stems from the changing nature of internationalisation context from ‘aid’ to ‘trade’ (Knight, 1999, p. 25).

De Wit (2002, p. 111) criticised these categorisations as “a mix”. According to De Wit, there are some unrelated activities placed under one main category. De Wit (2002, p. 111) rearranges them into 6 major categories: (1) academic programmes, (2) research and scholarly collaboration, (3) technical assistance, (4) export of knowledge, (5) transnational education and (6) extracurricular activities. Knight (2004, p. 16) grouped all of these internationalisation activities in two basic aspects: at home or campus-based internationalisation and abroad/ cross-border education, which are called ‘two interdependent pillars’ of internationalisation, as illustrated in Figure 2.3.



**Figure 2.3** Two pillars of internationalisation: At home and abroad/cross-border

Source: Adapted from Knight (2012, p.244)

The fundamental difference between ‘Internationalisation at Home’ and ‘Cross -border Education’ is that the former focuses on campus-based strategies of internationalisation while the latter is related to off campus activities or programmes (Knight, 2012, p. 244).

***Internationalisation at home.*** ‘Internationalisation at Home’ (IaH) started in the late 1990s in Europe, focusing on internationalising curricula and teaching and learning processes, which aim to be beneficial to vast majority of students who are not exposed to intercultural learning and an international experience abroad (Altbach, 2013, p. 21). The movement gradually extended beyond Europe, to Australia and then to the United States, and finally spread all over the world (Altbach, 2013, p. 21).

Wächter (2001) is a pioneer author who defined this phenomenon as “any internationally related activity except outbound student and staff mobility” (p. 6). However, Beelen and Jones (2015) criticised this definition as instead of indicating what ‘Internationalisation at Home’ actually is, it just concentrates on what it is not. According to the suggestions of Beelen and Leask (2011), internationalisation at home needs to include “A set of instruments and activities ‘at home’ that aim to develop international and intercultural competencies in all students” (p. 65). Therefore, in attempts to propose a concept, which may help to support its implementation, Beelen and Jones (2015) define:

Internationalisation at Home is the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments (p. 69).

According Beelen and Jones’s (2015) explanation, the central focus of this definition is about incorporating intercultural and international dimensions in learning-teaching process and curricula in a purposeful way. The main purpose of IaH is to help all domestic students to have an international awareness and intercultural skills to succeed in further higher education or in the global job market (Knight, 2004, p. 17). Activities that fall under this at-home dimension are depicted in Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3** Internationalisation at home

	<b>Categories</b>
Curriculum and Programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Curricula with international focus, content or relevance</li> <li>◆ International, intercultural, global or comparative dimension infused into existing courses</li> <li>◆ Foreign language skills/study</li> <li>◆ Area or regional studies</li> <li>◆ Joint or double degrees</li> </ul>
Teaching & learning process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Recruitment of international students</li> <li>◆ Recruitment of international faculty</li> <li>◆ Virtual student mobility for joint courses</li> <li>◆ Integration of international, intercultural case studies, role plays and reference materials</li> </ul>
Extracurricular activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ International and intercultural campus events</li> </ul>
Research & scholarly activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Joint research projects</li> <li>◆ International conferences and seminars in home campus</li> <li>◆ International research partners or agreements</li> <li>◆ Published articles and papers</li> <li>◆ Research exchange programmes</li> <li>◆ Integration of visiting researchers and scholars into academic activities on campus</li> </ul>

Sources: Adapted from Knight (1997, p. 15) & Knight (2004, pp. 14-20) – Developed by the author of this study.

As can be seen from the Table 2.3, at the very top of strategies of IaH is the internationalisation of curricula and academic programmes. Knight (2008) also acknowledged that curricula and academic programmes are considered as the backbone of internationalisation at home. Referring to the curriculum, according to Leask (2015), internationalisation of the curriculum is about “incorporation of international, intercultural and global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods, and support services of a program of a study” (p. 209). The fundamental focus of curriculum internationalisation is that the program content and learning outcomes must be internationalised. If a program is taught in English only, it is insufficient to be considered as an internationalized curriculum as it is merely a change in the language of instruction.








In general, as shown in Table 2.3, a diversity of activities that set up IaH: curriculum and programs, teaching/learning processes, extra-curricular activities, and research or scholarly activity (Knight, 2007, p. 27). It is apparent that IaH is not an aim or a theoretical concept in itself, but rather a set of instruments and activities ‘at home’ that are to develop international and intercultural competences in all students. Therefore, Mestenhauser (2007) criticised that IaH is



poorly conceptualised and lack any appreciable application of learning theories. There is a room for improvement.

**Cross-border education.** This category refers to all forms of education across national or regional jurisdictional borders: the movement of people, programmes and providers, curricula, projects, research and services (Knight, 2004). According to Knight (2007, p. 24), cross-border is a term that is often used interchangeably with other terms such as transnational, offshore, and borderless education. They all refer to similar types of activities, despite the fact that, as Knight (2007, p. 24) argued, there are some conceptual differences among these terms. This study uses the preferred term “cross-border education” with the purpose of giving the importance of jurisdictional boundaries when it comes to policy frameworks and regulations. Table 2.4 provides a list of categories of programmes or activities under this category, which is originally suggested by Knight (2007, pp. 25-26).

**Table 2.4** Cross-border education

Category	Forms and conditions of mobility		
	 Development Cooperation	 Educational Linkages	 Commercial Trade
PEOPLE: Students Professors/scholars Researchers/ Experts/consultants 	Semester/year abroad Full degrees Field/research work Internships Sabbaticals Consulting		
PROGRAMS: Course, program, subdegree, degree post-graduate 	Twinning Franchised Articulated/validated Joint/double award Online/distance		
PROVIDERS: Institutions Organizations Companies 	Branch campus Virtual university Merger/acquisition Independent institutions		
PROJECTS Academic projects Services 	Research Curriculum Capacity-building Educational services		

Source: Adapted from Knight (2007, pp. 25-26) - Developed by the author of this study.

As shown in Table 2.4, cross-border education comprises two significant trends, in which the first is the vertical shift downwards from student mobility to programme and provider mobility while the second is from left to right signifying substantial change in the direction from development cooperation to competitive commerce or aid to trade (Knight, 2007, p. 25). Among these categories, according to Knight (2007, p. 25), the largest component is student mobility, while delivering foreign academic courses and programmes to domestic students is currently being emphasised more. As Knight (2004) indicates, these two streams, ‘Internationalisation at Home’ and ‘Cross-border’ education should be seen as being interdependent rather than independent: Cross-border education has significant implications for internationalisation ‘at home’ and vice versa (Knight, 2004, p. 16). Knight (2007 and 2012a) describes three generations of cross-border education from a historical perspective as shown in Table 2.5.

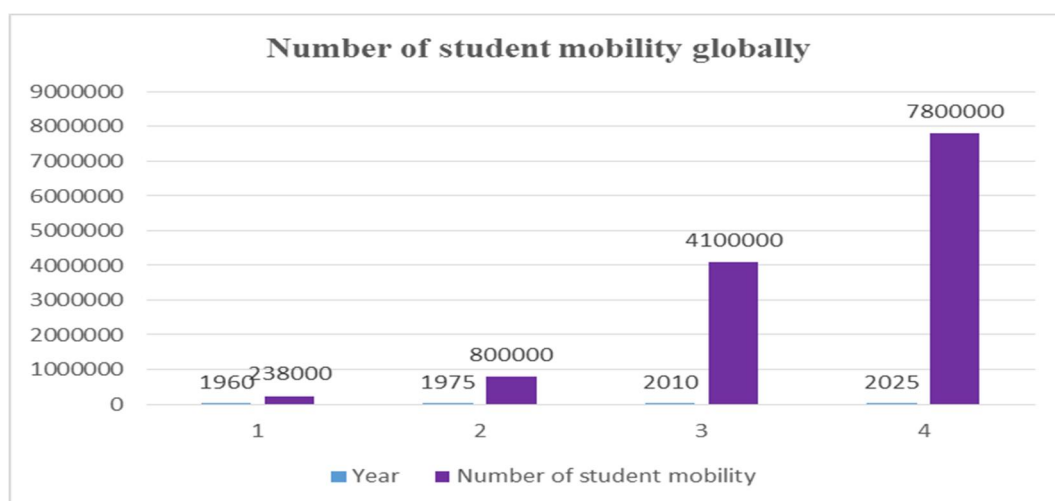
**Table 2.5** Three generations of cross-border education

Cross-border Education	Primary Focus	Description												
First Generation	<b>People Mobility</b> Movement of students or professors to foreign country for education purposes.	<b>Students:</b> travel abroad in the forms of full degree or for short-term study, research, fieldwork, internship, or exchange programmes. <b>Professors:</b> travel abroad to teach, conduct research, or seek professional development.												
Second Generation	<b>Programme and provider Mobility</b> Movement of programmes or institutions/companies across jurisdictional borders for delivery of education	<table><tr><th>Programme Mobility</th><th>Provider Mobility</th></tr><tr><td>Twinning</td><td>Branch</td></tr><tr><td>Franchised</td><td>Campus</td></tr><tr><td>Articulated/Validated</td><td>Virtual University</td></tr><tr><td>Joint/Double Award</td><td>Merger/Acquisition</td></tr><tr><td>Online/Distance</td><td>Independent Institutions</td></tr></table>	Programme Mobility	Provider Mobility	Twinning	Branch	Franchised	Campus	Articulated/Validated	Virtual University	Joint/Double Award	Merger/Acquisition	Online/Distance	Independent Institutions
Programme Mobility	Provider Mobility													
Twinning	Branch													
Franchised	Campus													
Articulated/Validated	Virtual University													
Joint/Double Award	Merger/Acquisition													
Online/Distance	Independent Institutions													
Third Generation	<b>Education Hubs</b> Countries attract foreign students, researchers, workers, programmes, providers, research and development (R&D) companies for education, training, knowledge production, innovation purposes	<b>Student Hub</b> Students, programme providers move to foreign country for education purposes <b>Talent Hub</b> Students, workers move to foreign country for education and training and employment purposes <b>Knowledge/Innovation Hub</b> Education researchers, scholars, HEIs, R&D centres move to foreign country to produce knowledge and innovation												

Source: Adapted from (Knight, 2007, p. 24; Knight, 2012a, p.4) - Developed by the author of this study.

The first generation, student mobility, refers to the physical movement of students and scholars across countries (Knight, 2012a; Yeravdekar & Tiwari, 2014). Wächter (2003)

describes this generation as “its basis was individual, meaning that there was no structural involvement of the higher education institutions themselves” (p. 3). This phenomenon has been changed dramatically regarding the quantity, the modes (full degree abroad, exchange, internships, semester/year abroad), the destination countries, and even the driving rationales in the last fifty years (Knight, 2012a, p. 4). The term ‘international student mobility’ is defined as “border-crossing for the purpose of embarking into study in the country of destination” (Teichler, 2017, p. 187). Statistically, the numbers of students have increased dramatically, from 238,000 in the 1960s (Chen & Barnett, 2000, as cited in Knight, 2012, p. 21), 0.8 million worldwide in 1975 (Noorda, 2014, p.5), to 4.1 million in 2010 (OECD, 2012), and about 7.8 million students forecasted by 2025 (Knight, 2012, p. 21). This change is depicted in Figure 2.4:



**Figure 2.4** Number of international student mobility globally from 1960 to 2025

Source: Adapted from Knight (2012, p. 21) - Developed by the author of this study.

The second generation of cross-border education is the mobility of programmes or providers, not the students. This movement began from the early 1990s and continued to increase substantially. This form has offered opportunities for the number of students who could access foreign programmes and qualifications without leaving home (Knight, 2012, p. 5). Franchising, twinning, double/joint degrees, and various articulation models are all in the catalogue of cross-border programme mobility (Knight, 2007).

Furthermore, the advent of branch campuses and virtual universities appeared as novel modes of cross-border provider mobility. The number of twinning programmes, joint/double

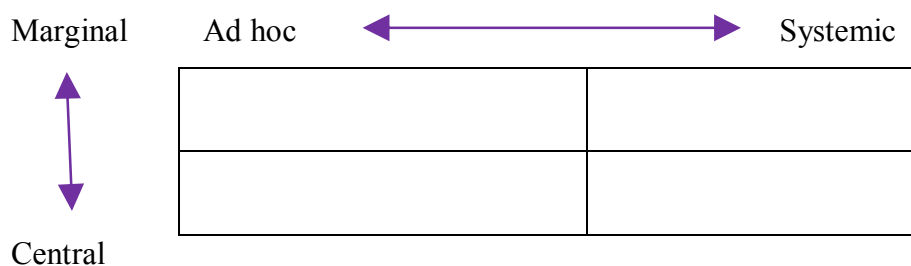
degree programmes, and exchange programmes has multiplied 10 fold in the past two decades (Knight, 2012, p. 10). A substantial evidence of unprecedented growth is the fact that there were twenty-four branch campuses around the world in 2002, but by 2012, the number increased to more than 200 (Knight, 2013, p. 5).

Education hubs represent the third generation of a cross-border activity, emerging from the landscape of our current globalised world. Education hubs are the latest manifestation of this activity and constitute the third wave of cross-border education initiatives. They build on and can include first and second-generation cross-border activities, representing a wider and more strategic configuration of actors and activities (Knight, 2012, p. 13). Knight (2012) defines an education hub as “a planned effort to build a critical mass of local and international actors strategically engaged in cross-border education, training, knowledge production and innovation initiatives” (p. 13). It is actually a concerted and planned effort by a country (or zone, city) to build a critical mass of education/ knowledge actors and strengthen its efforts to exert more influence in the new marketplace of education (Lane & Kinser, 2011, p. 82).

In short, the significant development of internationalisation components is accentuated into two key transition characteristics: from technical assistance to a growing global competition, from individual mobility, the transplantation of programmes or systems models to internationalisation or standardisation of programmes, transnational education and quality assurance at a regional and global level (Huang, 2007, p. 52). Teichler (2009, p. 25) emphasised that international activities within higher education have been substantially increased over recent years, and are likely to increase further in the future. From all sources of analysis and predictions, it is undoubted that the interest, research, policies, and strategies are most likely going to increase in the years to come. According to de Wit, “only in a few exceptional cases will an institution have an explicit strategy that covers all or even most of the activities mentioned” (2002, p. 40).

**Organisational strategies.** Programme strategies cannot be sustained without articulated institutional commitment and the proper support of organisational strategies (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Schoorman, 1999). Organisational strategies help to ensure that an international dimension is institutionalised through appropriate policies and administrative systems (de Wit, 2002). According to Knight (1997, p. 16), higher education institutions need to create their organisational structure in order to implement internationalisation programmes, which will be basically driven by their motivations and their mission and vision in a particular context. The existing literature on internationalisation of higher education suggests four models commonly cited. As Elkin, Devjee, and Farnsworth (2005) indicated, a model plays as a mapping technique, which allows the measurement of the current level of internationalisation of the institution and also of the future aspirations the institution has for internationalisation.

Firstly, **Davies's model.** The very earliest model of internationalisation of higher education can be attributed to Davies (1992) who first published the “Institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation”



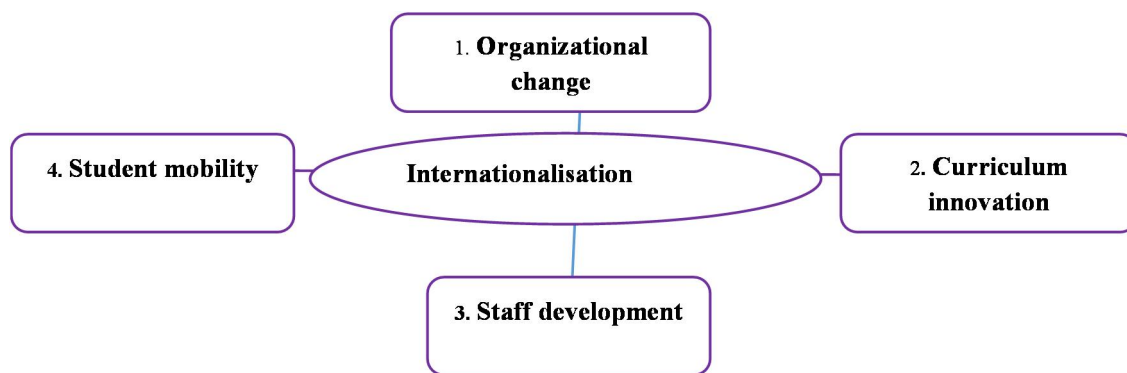
**Figure 2.5** Institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation

Source: Adapted from Davies (1992, p.16)- Developed by the author of this study.

Davies (1992) aimed at examining some of the organisational consequences of internationalisation in universities with a special focus on the institutionalisation of international strategy. In Davies's model, the route to the implementation of an internationalisation strategy depends on its importance to the institution (from marginality to centrality) and the style of introducing it (from ad hoc to highly systematic). It appears that universities are likely to develop different international activities in a piecemeal fashion, which may or may not reinforce each other until eventually, internationalisation becomes central to the university (Davies, 1992). Indeed, Davies' model comes from an understanding of internationalisation as a policy target for HEIs rather than a process. Thus, Davies' model does not take into account that the external and

internal factors may change or interact. Overall, Davies's (1992) work - despite being somewhat outdated - was essential for this thesis in understanding at what current stage the internationalisation of Vietnamese higher education is.

**Rudzki's model.** Rudzki (1993) developed a model, which focuses on four key elements: (1) student mobility, (2) staff development, (3) curriculum innovation, and (4) organisational change. According to Rudzki's belief, internationalisation is the combination of these four dimensions for ultimate target "achieving excellence in teaching and research" (Rudzki, 1995, p. 421). In this model, institutions go through two distinct modes in the internationalisation process: the reactive and proactive modes, with five stages in each as illustrated in Figure 2.6:



**Figure 2.6** The four dimensions of internationalisation

Source: Adapted from Rudzki (1995, p. 421) - Developed by the author of this study

During the reactive mode, an institution goes through five stages in approaching the internationalisation initiative as presented in Table 2.6. Stage one starts by the formalisation of academic staff engaging in contacts with other institutions in other countries. Then, in stage two, a link is established and formalised through agreements made between the institutions. Next, management seeks control of the growing activities through central control. Then, in stage four, there is a possible conflict between management and staff in the organisation, which may lead to the abandonment of goodwill of part of the academic staff and a reduction in activities. Stage five is characterised by maturity or decline, a shift towards a more proactive mode is possible. At this point, institutions may seek a more proactive approach to internationalisation (Rudzki, 1995, p. 437).

**Table 2.6** Reactive model of internationalisation

<b>Stage 1</b>	<b>Contact</b>	Academic staff engages in making contact with colleagues in other countries, curriculum development, limited mobility, links lack clear formulation of purpose and duration.
<b>Stage 2</b>	<b>Formulation</b>	Some links are formalized with institutional agreements being made. Resources may not be available.
<b>Stage 3</b>	<b>Central/Control</b>	Growth in activity and response by management who seek to gain control of activities.
<b>Stage 4</b>	<b>Conflict</b>	The organizational conflict between staff and management leading to withdrawing of goodwill by staff. Possible decline in activity and disenchantment.
<b>Stage 5</b>	<b>Maturity or Decline</b>	The possible move to a more coherent that is a proactive approach.

Source: Adapted from Rudzki, (1995, p.437) - Developed by the author of this study

The proactive mode, on the other hand, which may be preceded by a reactive mode, starts with exploring the understanding of the term ‘internationalisation’ in the HEIs and analysing the need to internationalise and the reasons behind it as depicted in Table 2.7. A normative approach could be taken here using tools such as SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses Opportunities, and Threats) analysis. Then, the choice of a strategy and policy plan includes allocating resources as well as networking with other organisations. The next stage is the implementation of the strategy, followed by measuring performance against the policy. The final stage is a re-evaluation of the policy and strategy and can be seen as a return to the first stage in an attempt to continually enrich the process.

**Table 2.7** Proactive model of internationalisation

Stage 1	Analysis	Awareness of what internationalisation is and what it entails-What kinds of internationalisation activities are available-international audit, SWOT analysis, Cost-Benefit Analysis.
Stage 2	Choice	Strategic plan, policy drawn up, resources allocated, networking with internal and external organizations.
Stage 3	Implementation	Measure performance
Stage 4	Review	Assessment of performance against policy and plan.
Stage 5	Redefine	Process of continued improvement and the issues of quality this entails

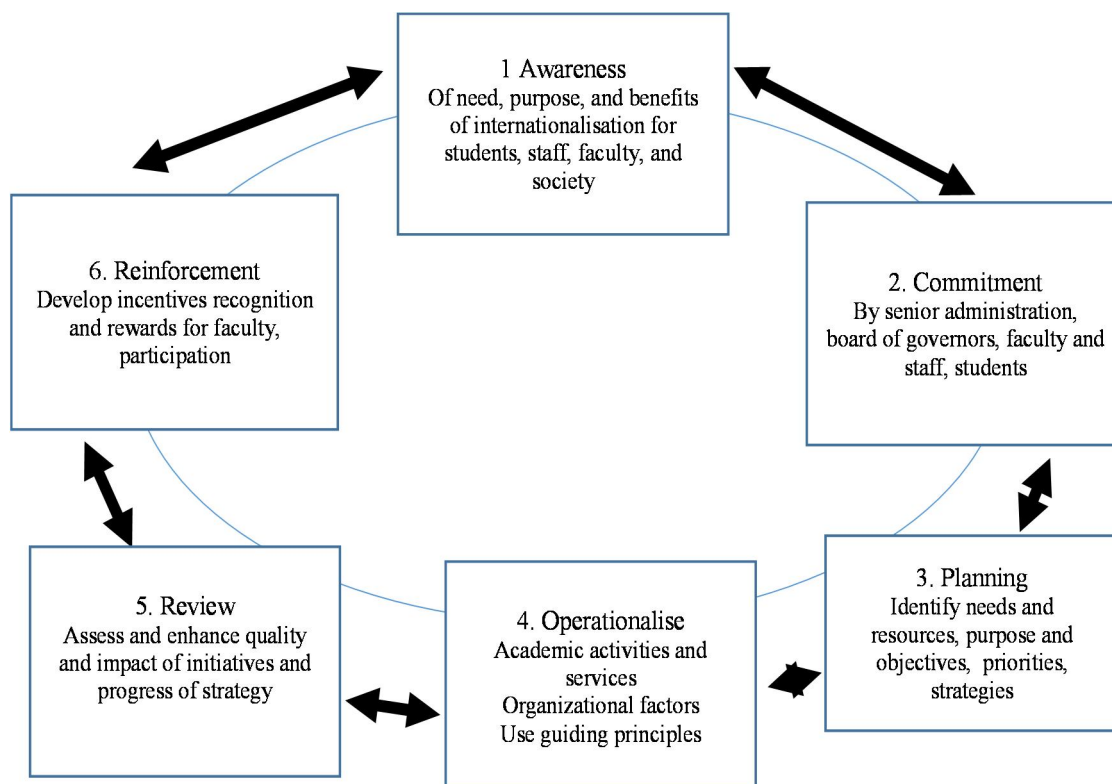
Source: Adapted from Rudzki, (1995, p. 437) - Developed by the author of this study.

Rudzki's model can be used by HEIs as an indicator of where an institution is in the combination between internationalisation strategic focus and its practicality. The model started to depict a process view of internationalisation for a strategic development. Rudzki's work here is essential for this thesis as he offers the first rough assessment of the present organisational strategy of an internationalised institution, particularly the proactive model. The descriptive nature of Rudzki's study and Davies' (1992) prescriptive model enable this thesis to analyse Vietnamese universities' internationalisation strategies and help to improve its system. However, these highly pure prescriptive or descriptive models do not reflect the operationalisation process or interaction between stages of internationalisation practices, which are dynamic in nature. To overcome this limitation, Knight and Söderqvist took the process approach, not only focusing on the organisation as such, but on the process of internationalisation strategy as a whole.

***Knight's model.*** Knight (1994) developed an Internationalisation Cycle model in which the internationalisation process of an institution occurs as presented in Figure 2.7. In this model, the cycle has six steps, in which an institution can move through as fast as it chooses. While it is clear that there is a sequence of the six phases, it is also important to acknowledge the two-way flow that will occur between the different steps. The framework attempts to describe the specific steps or phases in the process of integrating an international dimension in any university culture and systems.

Phase one begins with an institutional awareness of the importance of internationalisation regarding the "need, purpose, strategies, controversial issues, resource implications and benefits of internationalisation" (p. 26). This is followed by an institutional commitment by senior administration, the board of governors, students, faculty, and staff. The planning stage involves formulating institutional policies and priorities that reflect the need and value of internationalisation. Knight recognises that effective internationalisation cannot take root if the institution does not carefully carry out the operationalisation stage, which includes specific activities and programmes available on and off campus. This is followed by a systematic review stage by all academic units and departments to monitor its effectiveness. The last phase in Knight's framework is the reinforcement stage characterised by institutionally developed incentives, recognition and reward system.





**Figure 2.7** Internationalisation cycle

Source: Adapted from Knight (1994, p.12)- Developed by the author of this study

Knight's (1994) cycle is crucial for this thesis as it reflects an understanding of internationalisation as a process with its strategic plan and a goal. Knight's model plays an important role in showing how to create a culture that ensures the international dimension in the operation of a campus community or an institution at the whole. This is very important for suggesting an appropriate strategic plan for case studies of the thesis. However, the shortcoming of this model is that it does not suggest how to interact between the steps or how internationalisation affects other functions of the institution at certain points in time.

**Söderqvist's model.** Söderqvist (2002, p. 38) depicted the evolution of five stages of mass internationalisation of higher education institutions, from a marginal activity to a strategic approach. This model is originally based on the work of Knight (1994) and further developed, focusing on the process of internationalisation of higher education of an organisation (as shown in Table 2.8). In Söderqvist's model, the activities and programmes of internationalisation of higher education become richer and more expansive, a true evolution from just 'Internationalisation as a marginal activity' to 'internationalisation of the firm' for the purpose of

the improvement of educational quality. Instead of mentioning internationalisation of higher education process in an abstract, generic way as in Knight (1994) and de Wit (2002), this model provided specific activities or programmes in relation to each stage of the process.

**Table 2.8** Stages of (European) internationalisation in higher education institutions

<b>Zero Stage Internationalisation as Marginal Activity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ There are some free movers.</li> <li>✓ Internationalisation is an exotic and status phenomenon – some important actors in the organization travel to conferences.</li> <li>✓ Foreign languages are taught.</li> </ul>
<b>First Stage Student Mobility</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Awareness of the need to internationalise;</li> <li>✓ Commitment to planning and implementing different programmes enhancing the mobility of students;</li> <li>✓ Creation of international offices to handle the routines of student mobility.</li> </ul>
<b>Second stage Curriculum and Research internationalisation</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Awareness of teachers necessary to make internationalisation of the curriculum and research possible;</li> <li>✓ Organizing of teacher mobility;</li> <li>✓ Internationalisation taken as a means to enhance the quality of education;</li> <li>✓ Different ways to internationalise the curriculum;</li> <li>✓ Appointment of international coordinators to handle curriculum and research internationalisation.</li> </ul>
<b>Third Stage Institutionalization of Internationalisation</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Internationalisation is given a strategy and a structure;</li> <li>✓ Networking both through cheap travel and new ICT; partnerships and strategic alliances;</li> <li>✓ The quality of internationalisation is receiving more attention;</li> <li>✓ Multiculturalism;</li> <li>✓ Appointment of an internationalisation manager.</li> </ul>
<b>Fourth stage Commercialising the Outcomes of Internationalisation</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Exporting education services;</li> <li>✓ Franchising education services;</li> <li>✓ Licensing;</li> <li>✓ Joint ventures;</li> <li>✓ Strategic alliances;</li> <li>✓ Creating of organs to promote commercialization.</li> </ul>

Source: Developed by the author- Adapted from Söderqvist, (2002, p.38)

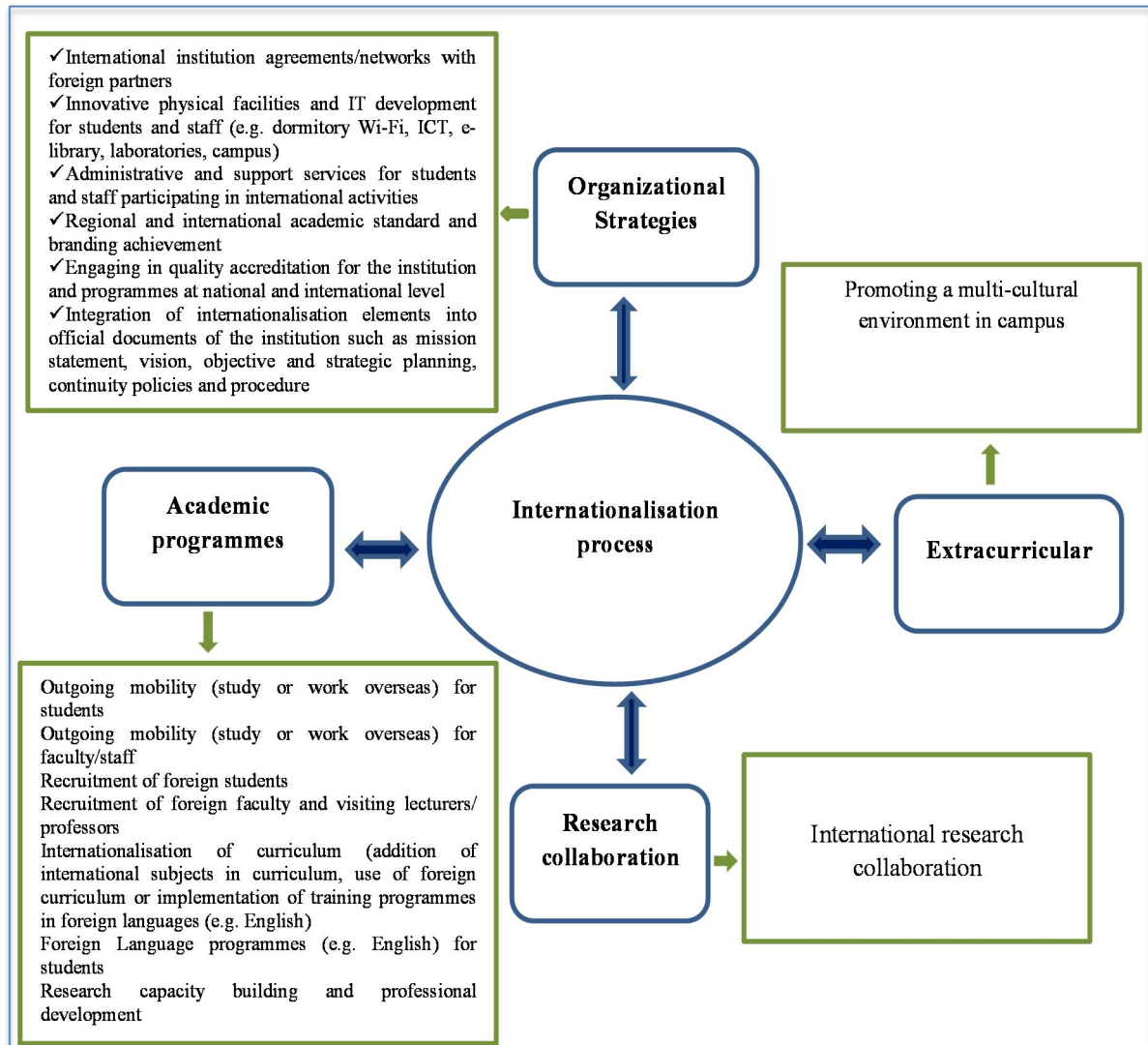
Although Söderqvist did not mention the specific contextual background, it is considered to be relevant to European higher education contexts.

**Insights.** Although these models provide the institution with useful organisational tools to enhance the effectiveness of internationalisation practices, they are Western forms and Eurocentric nature or they were mainly constructed based on the experiences of the developed world. However, this thesis was carried out in a developing country and Asian context, where the driving forces of developing countries for participating in international activities may not be the same as those in their developed and technically advanced counterparts (Altbach, 2004). In fact, internationalisation practices are not value-neutral and they must be rooted in cultural dimensions regarding culture, place, time, and manner (De Wit et al., 2017, p. xv). To be successful, it depends on different situations and institutions to determine the most suitable ones

because “each organisation has its own organisational culture and operating systems which affect the choice and success of different strategies” (Knight, 1997, p. 16).

The models discussed above are, however, important in the sense that they are in themselves attempts to ‘visualise’ the different aspects of higher education internationalisation with the aim of understanding how it works.

From the literature, there are two alternative approaches for constructing internationalisation strategies at an institutional level: the ‘framework approach’ and the ‘model approach’. The selection of the framework or model approach from which internationalisation components are derived is inextricably bound with the reliability and the nature of the research. As the main objective of my research is about identifying the key dimensions of internationalisation that have been put in place, the ‘framework’ approach is argued to be suitable for serving this purpose. Beerkens (2003) asserted that by viewing internationalisation within the framework approach, university internationalisation is not only clearly defined but also distinguished between different elements and how they might be categorised as ‘at home’ or ‘cross-border’ etc. Therefore, the internationalisation strategies for this study have been constructed, not only involving the key common components suggested in the theoretical framework of Knight (1994, 2004, 2008, 2011, 2012) and de Wit (2002), but also adjusted to adapt the Asian and developing context. The key activities that suit the research sites are depicted in Figure 2.8:



**Figure 2.8** The internationalisation strategies for this study

Source: Developed by the author for this study

As shown in Figure 2.8, the strategic programmes of internationalisation for this study involve two dominant features: organisational strategies and programme strategies. For organisational strategies, all five components can be grouped into two main aspects: the managerial and service aspects (Taylor, 2004). For programme strategies, there are three main aspects, which fall into two groups, namely ‘internationalisation at home’ and ‘internationalisation abroad’ (Knight, 1994, 2004). By this way, internationalisation of higher education can be viewed as both an activity and process approach that contributes to the ultimate purpose of higher education. In general, the proposed framework mentioned above highlights two significant features for achieving the effectiveness of internationalisation. First, higher education institutions need a strategic plan, which is suggested by Elkin et al. (2008) as an

essential part in advancing an institution's progress towards its desired level of internationalisation. Second, the international dimension must be integrated into existing institutional missions, values and priorities, which is highlighted by Hudzik (2013, p. 57).

### **2.2.5 Risks and challenges in internationalisation of higher education**

In screening a broad range of publications, there are few discussions concerning risks and challenges related to internationalisation strategies and implementation (Ayoubi and Massoud, 2007). In terms of risks, a number of key issues are identified such as brain drain (Altbach, 2013, p.10; Knight, 2013, p. 4) the problem of 'degree mills' and/or low-quality providers (Altbach, 2013, 15; Knight, 2015, p. 8), quality of joint degree-level programmes (Knight, 2013, 88; Teichler, 2004, p. 9), commercialisation of higher education (Teichler, 2004, p. 9; Knight, 2015, p. 8), inequality in access to educational opportunities (Murphy, 2007, p. 196; Egron-Polak, 2012, p. 2), loss of cultural or national identity (Knight, 2013, p. 88; Jibeen & Khan, 2015, p. 197).

Regarding challenges, a number of institutional key issues are identified such as a lack of financial sources (Alemu, 2014, p. 83), shortages of human resources (Leask, 2013, p. 104), and educational structure (Zolfaghari, Sabran, & Zolfaghari, 2009, p. 6), lack of policy, strategy, or concrete plans or appropriate mechanism to facilitate internationalisation (de Wit & Hunter, 2015, p. 3), lack of interest, involvement and concerted efforts of academic staff and students (Gopal, 2011, p. 374). How these challenges match the current issues that these case studies are facing will be examined in this study.

In summary, the analyses for the current study have been informed by studies on the various aspects of internationalisation. This chapter firstly explores the globalisation as a key driver in which the internationalisation of higher education came out, existed, and developed. According to a number of authors, there is a wide range of motives forming internationalisation strategies, which mainly depends on political, economic, social, cultural development and the contexts. Different scale and scope of higher learning institutions also pursue different internationalisation strategies. They are examined more broadly along with the internationalisation strategies in practice. The practices of internationalisation processes involve two dominant features, which Knight (2008, 2011, and 2012) classified as 'internationalisation at home' and 'internationalisation abroad or cross-border education'. People at most higher learning institutions frequently adopt both of them, which are alternatively categorised as

programme and organization strategies. In an attempt to understand how these programmes can perform in practice, there are some proposed models of some authors, which help to identify what stage in the internationalisation development process, and how to reduce the risks and challenges to go forward. The next section explains the gap and introduces the historical development of Vietnamese higher education system with its internationalisation.

### **Chapter 3. Vietnamese Higher Education and Its Internationalisation**

As the research was conducted in a typical developing country, namely Vietnam, this part firstly focuses on how this thesis intends to break new ground in the field of Vietnamese internationalisation of higher education, which is regarded as an area lacking both theoretical and empirical aspects in the research field. The following section indicates the key points of internationalisation development from historical perspectives, which has suffered a lengthy period of foreign colonization and war. The next part of this chapter discusses the Vietnamese policies, strategies, and challenges for internationalisation of higher education nationwide.

#### **3.1 Breaking the New Ground**

Early research in internationalisation of higher education was occasional, coincidental, and episodic. By the beginning of the 1990s, according to Teichler (1999), internationalisation remains a lack of academic recognition and comprehensive documentation of contributions to the field. As pointed out by Altbach and Knight (2007), there were little systematic, theoretical and empirical studies in this research area over the 1980s and 1990s and there was not much research done until the mid-1990s.

From the mid-1990s and onwards, higher education internationalisation has increasingly gained more importance, not only for educational and scientific reasons but also due to socio-economic ones. This was illustrated in a number of research, which provided a wide range of evidence that internationalisation of higher education has become a key element for modernising universities and a key criterion in the majority of university rankings (Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Enders & Fulton, 2002; de Wit, 2013)

Since then, internationalisation of higher education has inspired many debates and researches with various focuses and themes (Kreber, 2009, p. 6; Craciun, 2015, p. 49). As a result, research on internationalisation of higher education has been carried out in all aspects, from theory to practices, from a small scale to a large one.

In terms of theoretical framework, the body of literature has also focused on three main frameworks, categorised as ‘conceptual,’ ‘critical’ and ‘students’. The first one refers to a wide range of research on the ‘conceptual’ framework of internationalisation of higher education and its relation with some other relevant and superior concepts such as globalisation or intercultural and multicultural education etc. (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Zha, 2003; Knight, 2004, 2008). The second one is associated with a set of studies on benefits, opportunities, challenges of

internationalisation of higher education, etc. (Murphy, 2007; Maringe, 2009; Alemu, 2014). The third one is a wealth of evident research on international and domestic students' experiences and perceptions (Altbach & Knight, 2007; de Wit, 2011; Kehm & Teichler, 2007; Marginson & van der Wende, 2007).

With regard to practices or empirical studies, research on internationalisation can be categorised into three main streams: strategies (types of strategies, activities, and initiatives) (Elkin et al., 2005; Ayoubi & Massoud, 2007; Larsen, 2015); locations (where internationalisation of higher education takes places: home or abroad) (Beelen & Leask, 2011; Beelen & Jones, 2015), and motivation (rationales for internationalisation in higher education) (Shaydorova, 2014).

Further, internationalisation of higher education has been researched at all three levels, from 'large scale' (ex. IAU's surveys), 'middle-scale' (example: regional and international projects), to 'small-scale' (example: dissertations and single papers in journals). However, according to the research of Teichler (2004, 2009), there is a heterogeneous distribution between the developed and developing countries in this research area. Indeed, there has been an abundance of published work on higher education internationalisation of the Western world; research on the internationalisation of Asian universities has been extremely limited, with just a handful of work such as Jung (2010); Yun (2014); or Tian (2015). A study by Tian (2015), for example, investigated three aspects of higher education internationalisation in the Chinese context: meanings, implementation and evaluation. Tian's findings contribute to providing the understandings of the internationalisation of higher education in Asia; however, limited to only one Chinese case university. Yun (2014) examined the internationalisation process regarding practices and challenges at one higher education institution in one developing country. Because Yun only did one typical case, which represents only a first-tier university, the second or the third-tier types of universities have been still understudied.

In Vietnam, although the Vietnamese government has increasingly encouraged higher education institutions to cooperate with foreign institutions in teaching, learning, and scientific research after the Open Door policy in 1986 (Nguyen, 2011; Harman, Hayden & Pham, 2010; London, 2011; Nguyen et al., 2016), a very limited work has been done on this field systematically (Nguyen, 2011). Research on the internationalisation of Vietnamese higher education has a tendency to focus on four main aspects. The first aspect is related to historical



foreign influences upon on higher learning institutions (Pham & Fry, 2004; Welch, 2010; London, 2011). The second aspect is the globalisation impact (Nguyen & Fraser, 2007; Le, 2014) and the third one is related to strategic directions for internationalisation of higher education (Welch, 2010; Tran, 2014; Nguyen 2011). The final one focuses on the internationalisation of curricula or cooperation programmes with the foreign institution (Duong, 2013; Bower, Gallardo & Jumnongsong, 2015). They chiefly are single papers in journals. Only one is a doctoral thesis, which examines internationalisation of higher education at a public university - Vietnam National University, Hanoi (VNU) (Nguyen, 2011). The study applied mixed methods in a specific case study with the purpose of getting a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of internationalisation of higher education from within a Vietnamese public university. The study examined the status and existing strategies for internationalisation. However, her work only focuses on a single leading university while Vietnamese higher education system has a diversity of types. Also, this study lacked of the comparison between VNU and its counterparts or other types of universities in the same aspects of the research.

Generally, after an extensive literature search, looking at internationalisation at an institutional level in Vietnamese education, in-depth studies are still absent. That leads to the lack of a comprehensive understanding of the characteristics of internationalisation in Vietnamese universities in both theories and academic inquiry. Consequently, it is difficult to engage in critical discussions about internationalisation topics or themes neither within Vietnam nor worldwide. The establishment of a common language in this area is crucial for shaping internationalisation dimensions in higher learning organizations (Knight & De Wit, 1995; Zha, 2003; Altbach & Knight, 2007; De Wit & Hunter, 2015). This thesis addresses this deficiency.

### **3.2 Historical Perspectives**

The historical development of Vietnamese higher education has been interwoven with those in China, France, US and especially the former Soviet Union. This root shapes Vietnam's culture and social characteristics, being greatly influenced by a long period of foreign domination and war (Wright, 2002, pp. 226-238). This section highlights the key international factors that affected Vietnamese education before the Renovation Policy in 1986, which started with Chinese invasion for many centuries, followed by French colonialism between 1858 and 1954, the American incursion in the South from 1954 to 1975 and the Soviet influence at the end of the American war (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2008, p. 110). For the purposes of this study, some periods,

for example, from the 12th century until 19th century, will be neglected as this historical period marked the establishment of Vietnamese feudal regime without any compromise on national sovereignty.

### **3.2.1 Confucian institutions and its historical legacies - the sphere of Chinese influences**

Historically, the period of Chinese imperial rule for almost 1000 years, from 111 BC to AD 938, has marked a major foreign influence in the forms of Chinese language (known as Han script) and Confucianism ideologies and values (Wright, 2002). During this period, as Wright (2002) identified, schools were established for educating the sons of the Chinese administrators, using Chinese characters for writing and adopting Confucianism ideology for learning (London, 2011). This period, known as Tang dynasty, as Tran (2014, p. 130) indicated, elite Vietnamese students had chances to access to higher learning in China or to participate in competitive examinations in Beijing. When Ngo Quyen defeated the Southern Han troops in 938, according to Pham (1995), the Chinese occupation was translated into establishing the Vietnamese feudal state (Pham, 1995, as cited in Wright, 2002). Throughout three dynasties Ngo, Dinh and initial Le (from 939 to 1009), education was provided in private and Buddhist schools without extensive development (Welch, 2010, p. 198).

From 1009 to 1225 (Ly dynasty), the Royal College, the first public higher education institution, was built in the Temple of Literature in Thang Long in 1076 (Wright, 2002, p. 226).

Then, the National Institute of Learning was established in the Temple of Literature during the Tran dynasty from 1226-1400. Although the Royal College aimed to provide moral education and training for princes and sons of dignitaries and mandarins, the National Institute of Learning in the Temple of Literature aimed to select princes and great commoners for training as mandarins (Pham, 1998, as cited in Wright, 2002, p. 226). The first competitive examination in the history of Vietnamese education was organised in 1075 during the Ly dynasty; however, it was implemented fully at three levels until the end of the Tran dynasty and later Le dynasty: the inter-provincial examination, pre-court examination, and the prestigious court examination for graduates (Welch, 2010, p. 198). Those who succeeded in the highest examination level were titled, doctor. The purpose of the examinations was to select talents for administrators' positions. In 845 years, from 1075 until the last examination in 1919, there were 187 examinations organised; 30 people were awarded *Trang Nguyen* (the first-rank doctorate and first laureate), 2989 were awarded *Tien Sy* (doctor) (MOET, 2004, p. 53).

Confucianism and Confucian ideology, fondness for learning, eagerness for knowledge and respect for moral education, have been enduring traits and important traditional values in Vietnam throughout its history. These values have contributed to the shaping of Vietnamese culture and society and have also made education the utmost priority for families and individuals (London, 2011, p. 6). During this period, the curriculum for these competitive examinations (three levels) was common for all types of schools (private, provincial schools, and the Royal College). The content was based on the set of Four Confucian Books (the Great Learning, the Doctrine of the Mean, the Analects of Confucius, and the Mencius), and Five Confucian Classics (the Ching, the Classic of Poetry, the Three Rites, the Classic of History, and the Spring and Autumn Annals (Pham & Fry, 2004, p. 202).

During this period, teaching materials were written in Han (Chinese characters). When Vietnam became an independent country, it developed its unique system of Vietnamese characters called "Chu Nom" in the 13th century (Pham, 1995, as cited in Wright, 2002, p. 226). Also, Nom (Ancient Vietnamese script) became compulsory in examinations in 1906 (MOET, 2004, p. 53). This development demonstrates the preservation and the awareness of national independence. Although the Chinese imperial regimes dominated Vietnam, the country's education system has always been characterised by its own unique and indigenous features (Wright, 2002, p. 226)

### **3.2.2 Colonialism and anti-colonialism 1858-1954 - the sphere of French influences**

At the end of 19th and the first half of 20th centuries, according to Tran, Marginson and Nguyen (2014), external influences on Vietnamese education was identified as the French colonialism. During the 80 years of French domination, according to the exploration of Tran et al. (2014, p. 130), the traditional Confucian-oriented education was replaced by French-Vietnamese education in three significant changes: the invention of *chữ quốc ngữ* (the Vietnamese language was developed from a Roman script form), the establishment of an elite public system, and the mobility of scholars and students. The three aforementioned reformations, which was argued by Tran et al (2014, pp. 130-131), were aimed to produce human resources to serve the colonial aspirations of the French government. One of these efforts, for example, was described by Pham & Fry (2004, p. 203) as the establishment of three universities (the College of Medicine and Pharmacy, the College of Law and Administration, and the College of Sciences) located in Hanoi with 834 students, of which only 628 were Vietnamese

during the whole period. Welch (2010, p. 199) also noted that the education system under French colonialism was similar to that found in France, with multi-disciplined universities and three main areas in law, medicine and pharmacy, and sciences, mainly serving children of the colonial administrators and wealthy Vietnamese landlords.

### **3.2.3 Education systems in a divided Vietnam 1954-1975 - the sphere of America and the Soviet Union influences**

During the war of resistance period and until 1975, Vietnam experienced the formation of two new states-the Democratic Republic of Vietnam in the north and the Republic of Vietnam in the south- and with them; there were two separate educational systems.

In the South, the education system gradually transitioned from a European and French influence into a North American-dominated education model (Welch, 2010, p. 200). Higher education was more academic than practical orientation with an emphasis on sciences, laws, economy, and administration in the scope of higher education. It reflected the aims of fostering the economy to facilitate the war against North Vietnam (Welch, 2010, p. 200). By 1975, there were four public universities, serving 130,000 students, three community colleges, serving 2,600 students, and eleven private higher education institutions in various locations, serving 30,000 students (MOET, 2004, p. 55). These public universities were large and comprehensive with multiple disciplines; for example, Saigon University had thirteen colleges and 41 departments, Hue University had three faculties and two colleges. However, almost two-thirds of the total student population undertook social studies, mainly law and literature (MOET, 2004, p. 55).

However, in the North, the government of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam quickly adopted the Soviet model of higher education, which was characterised as mono-disciplinary universities (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2008, p. 111). Despite the hardships of war, the lack of financial resources and isolated location, the government determined to invest in the higher education system to train human resources and skilled professionals for the resistance war as well as for the socio-economic development of the country (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2008, p. 112). There were two significant reforms, which played a very important role in changing the condition of higher education during this period.

The first educational reform was in July 1950, which followed the principles of 'nation, sciences and people,' aiming to serve the war resistance and reconstruction of the nation (MOET, 2004, p. 203). This reform marks a new chapter of the educational system, aiming to improve the

quality of life for their people and to produce competent citizens for their nation future (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2008, p. 112). The second educational reform happened in 1958 when higher education started to adopt the Soviet higher education system. The curriculum and teaching methods applied the Soviet Union's model (Pham & Fry, 2004, p. 203). All universities in the North of Vietnam were state-run and specialised in only four areas including agriculture, science, engineering, and technology. Depending on students' university entrance exam results, they were enrolled to the course without paying a tuition fee. After graduation, they were assigned to work at the state-owned agencies and serve the communist target of the country (Pham & Fry, 2004, p. 203). From 1974 to 1975 academic year, there were 41 higher education institutions in the North of Vietnam with 100 different disciplines, serving 55,700 students (MOET, 2004, p. 56).

#### **3.2.4 A period of reunification of North and South after 1975**

After reunification of North and South in 1975, the Vietnamese authorities adopted a unified national education system in 1981. The Soviet model was applied to the whole higher education system of the country with highly specialised mono-disciplinary institutions (Welch, 2010, p. 201). Hence, the imposition of a Soviet-style education system to the south was one of the major changes in southern society after the war (London, 2011, p. 15).

Russian was the required foreign language course in the Vietnamese national education framework (Welch, 2010, p. 201). Except for medical studies following the French instruction, all higher education programmes strictly followed the Soviet curriculum. This model separated teaching activities from research activities and left the governance of institutions to particular line ministries (Welch, 2010, p. 201). During this period, Vietnam had very weak institutional foundations to build on. Higher education faced a serious shortage of resources such as no operating funds and finances for teacher salaries, a bare minimum budget for maintaining their regular activities, and no autonomy within a bureaucratic system (London, 2011, p. 16). Consequently, the legacies from the French and Soviet influence caused problems and barriers for Vietnam's higher education (Welch, 2010, p. 202).

#### **3.2.5 Vietnamese higher education reforms from 1986 onwards**

Vietnam has experienced a transition from state socialism to market socialism since the adoption of a market-based economy policy launched in 1986 (the Sixth National Congress of the Communist Party, 1986). This historic decision, according to the study of Harman et al. (2010, p. 16), has restructured the society, not only in the economic aspect but also in social and political

dimensions, ending the country's international isolation and helping to overcome its crisis economy period. According to George's (2010, p. 31) observation, this year marked the third transformation of the higher education system through introducing fee-paying policy, diversifying educational providers and establishing large comprehensive universities, transforming a Soviet model into a western-styled higher education system. More significantly, higher education was no longer strictly regulated or followed the plan of the state (London, 2011, p. 7). Evidence marking this reform, according to the study of London (2011, p. 7), several universities were merged into two multi-disciplinary national universities in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, non-public university was established and higher education institutions were allowed to admit fee-paying students in excess of the centrally planned quota.

It comes as no surprise that the face of Vietnamese higher education system has been improved gradually regarding scope, diversified types, as well as the establishment of new universities and colleges in all parts of Vietnam (Directive, 2010). According to the statistical results of Dao (2015, p. 746), the number of higher education institutions had increased significantly over a period of two decades. In 1987, there were only 101 higher education institutions (63 universities, representing 62%, 38 colleges, representing 38%), nearly all of which were small, specialised and teaching-only in focus. By June 2013, Vietnam had 204 universities and 215 colleges, increasing 4.18 times and 71 research institutes approved to provide Ph.D. academic programmes (Dao, 2015, p. 746). The number of higher education students increased 2.4 times by 2011-2012 as compared to the number of students in 1999-2000; however, the number of teachers just increased 1.4 times, causing a big rise in the student /teacher ratio. It was also stated in the country report (2009) that in 1987, one teacher was in charge of 6.6 students, in 2009 one teacher on average managed 28 students. By 2009-2010, the ratio of students/teachers remained at 30, which is widely regarded as being too high (Hayden & Lam, 2010, p. 95). In that context, the dilution of quality in higher education is unavoidable, causing a major concern to society.

In short, Vietnam has a long history of higher education from a feudal society, then a semi-feudal and later a colonial society, which was transformed into a socialist regime and is now a market socialist society. Vietnamese higher education has experience of changing under the influence of foreign education systems, accepting foreign ideas, and finding ways to adapt them to Vietnamese values.

### **3.3 Internationalisation of Higher Education in Vietnam: Policies and Strategies**

Since the open-door policy was implemented in 1986, Vietnam has participated in various regional and international organisations such as the United Nations in 1977, ASEAN in 1995 (Association of Southeast Asian Nations), the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Forum in 1998, and especially the World Trade Organisation in 2007. Through these participations, Vietnamese government seeks to upgrade the quality of its historically under-developed higher education via the investment of foreign institutions in Vietnam. Evidently, Mok (2008) identified that, after joining the WTO, the Vietnamese government has begun to change its laws, allowing overseas institutions to run education for profit, marking the beginning of the processes of privatisation, marketisation and commercialisation of higher education in Vietnam.

According to the literature, the two most significant official documents for encouraging the proliferation of foreign education were Decree no. 06/2000/ND CP in 2000 and Decree No. 18/2001/ND-CP issued in 2001 (Mok, 2008). Decree no. 06/2000/ND CP in 2000 was the first regulation providing a regulatory framework and also incentives for foreign cooperation and investment in education and training (MOET, 2000). Decree No. 18/2001/ND-CP issued in 2001 was the first government regulation regarding the establishment and operation of foreign educational and cultural institutions in Vietnam (MOET, 2001). Following these Decrees, a study conducted by Welch (2010, p. 204) found a wide range of evidence about the increasingly expanded forms of transnational education programmes, either run by foreign institutions or through cooperation between overseas and local institutions. For example, the establishment of the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT) - the branch campus of an Australian university in 2002 in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City marked a milestone of the emergence of private and foreign sectors in education (Welch, 2010, p. 204). In addition to this, according to the findings of Mok (2007), English becomes increasingly important in the country. This importance was also found in the study of Hoang (2010) by the fact that the first adjustment of the higher education curriculum is the requirement of learning English as a compulsory subject for every student. This amendment is rooted in the awareness that English is considered as one of the important factors in helping the system in the movement towards an international standard (Hoang, 2010).

A strong need of developing higher education system through international cooperation was mentioned further in Resolution 14/2005/NQ-CP of the Government – ‘Fundamental and

Comprehensive Renovation of Vietnam Higher Education for 2006-2020' (MOET, 2005). The agenda emphasised that internationalisation of higher education is one of the most important approaches for Vietnamese higher education to renovate and integrate into the region and the world. Nguyen et al. (2016, p. 196) asserted that internationalisation is identified as an effective tool to enhance national academic quality and standards and helping to develop high quality human resources for effective integration and contribution to the process of industrialisation and modernisation of the country.

Regarding transnational higher education programmes, joining WTO in 2007 and following the principles of GATS have provided an international safeguard for the development of transnational education in Vietnam. Thus, the proliferation and tremendous growth of transnational higher education programmes in Vietnam started to expand since 2007. Supported by Vietnamese law in 2012, those cross-border collaborative programmes, including joint, twinning, bilingual, and advanced degree-level programmes, gradually become popular in Vietnamese higher education institutions, as they are free to choose foreign partners or adopt foreign programmes (Nguyen et al., 2016). All of these programmes adopt the curricula of partners' programmes (the awarded degree coming from foreign universities) or joint degree-level programmes (the awarded degree from both foreign and domestic universities) (Dang, 2011).

In addition, studies in these courses are conducted in English, and some compulsory subjects are taught similarly to a normal domestic programme such as Marxist Leninist, Ho Chi Minh Vision, and Communist Party History. Since the first partnership programme established in 2001, until 2016, there were 436 partnership programmes licensed. Furthermore, MOET has prepared 34 advanced programmes in some Vietnamese elite universities, including Germany-Vietnam, Japan-Vietnam, France-Vietnam, Vietnam-United Kingdom Institute for Research and Training (Vietnam News, 2016). In running these articulated programmes in Vietnam, infrastructure, administration and recruiting students are the responsibility of the Vietnamese side while curriculum, academic performance, academic control, teaching staff and awarded degree are provided by their foreign partners (Nguyen, 2011).

Since 1986, there are some key events, strategies and policies of internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam summarised in Table 3.1



**Table 3.1** Important events, strategies and policies of the internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam since 1986

1986	✓ ✓	Introduction of market-driven economy Vietnam's open-door HE policies The third educational reform
1991	✓ ✓	Opening the foreign policy of the diversification and multi-lateralization of international relation Regulation on sending Vietnamese nationals to work abroad
1999	✓	MOET's the regulations related to foreigners studying in Vietnam
2000	✓ ✓	Regulation on the foreign cooperation in investment in education and training, scientific research MOET's Project 322: Vietnamese Government Scholarship
2001	✓ ✓	Government Decree on the establishment and operation of foreign educational and cultural institutions in Vietnam Government Strategy for Education Development 2001-2010
2002	✓	Establishment of RMIT-first 100% foreign investment university in Vietnam
2005	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	Education Law 2005; MOET document on Vietnam higher education renovation agenda period 2006-2020; Government Resolution on fundamentally and comprehensively renovation of Vietnam Higher Education for 2006-2020; MOET circular on guidelines on investment cooperation with foreign partners in the fields of healthcare, education, and training, and research.
2006	✓ ✓	MOET 'Advanced programmes' Pilot project; Prime Minister's Decision on policy and main guidelines to construct international standard universities of Vietnam.
2007	✓	Vietnam becoming the 150th WTO member
2008	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	Establishment of the Vietnamese-German University MOET proposal 20,000 PhDs Plan Government Decision on "Advanced programmes" in a period 2008-2015 MOET drafted Strategy for Education Development 2009-2020 MOET National Foreign Languages Project 2020 Programme 165 of Central Committee of the Communist Party of Vietnam
2010	✓	Vietnamese Government Scholarship (911 Project) Programme (2010-2020)
2012	✓ ✓	Education Law 2012 Government Decree on the foreign cooperation and investment in education
2013	✓	Project 599 (new phase of MOET 322)- for Undergraduate and Masters scholarship
2014	✓ ✓	(MOET) updated the regulations related to foreigners studying in Vietnam The EU-Vietnam Higher-Education Policy Forum to discuss internationalisation and cooperation in higher-education between Vietnam and the EU.
2015	✓	Vietnamese elite universities including Japan-Vietnam, France-Vietnam, Vietnam-United Kingdom Institute for Research and Training has been set up.
2018	✓	Finalising a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) to support quality and more transparent higher education system.

Source: Adapted from MOET's website- Developed by the author of this study.

As depicted in Table 3.1, there is another form of internationalisation of higher education: cross-border student mobility. Due to the increasing number of high-income families, the expanded relationship of MOET with the world, and the availability of public scholarship

programmes sponsored by MOET such as the 322, 911 or 165 projects, there have been numerous staff and student mobility schemes across the border of the country (Tran, 2014). The number of students and higher education staff studying abroad has increased sharply, from 1,139 in 1990 to 25,505 in 2005 (MOET, 2005), and more than 130,000 Vietnamese students in 2016 in 49 different countries all over the world (Vietnam News, 2016). This number has increased more than ten times compared to the year 2001.

The number of international students studying in Vietnam has also increased, although at a much more moderate level, from 600 students during the years of 1998-2000 to 20,000 international students studying in 2016 (Vietnam News, 2016). Internationalisation has opened the door widely to welcome international students into the Vietnamese education system. However, there are still a limited number of international students due to the low quality of the Vietnamese higher education system and the limited number of educational programmes offered in English. The majority of international students pursuing their study in Vietnam have only studied Vietnamese or Vietnamese studies (Nguyen, 2011).

### **3.4 Issues and Challenges in Internationalisation of Higher Education in Vietnam**

Since 1986, internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam has been significantly developed, contributing to improving the higher education system to some extent. However, there are some risks and challenges relating to this process.

Regarding risks, the literature shows two major problems associated with the internationalisation process of higher education including brain drain and the quality of imported programmes or foreign programmes. Firstly, brain drain has been considered as a long-standing and significant issue in Vietnam (Welch, 2010; Nguyen, 2011; Tran, 2014). The mobility flow of well-qualified students and academic staff is largely from Vietnam to developed countries due to seeking out better paying job opportunities or higher quality of life after graduation. Although the Vietnamese government has been making efforts to deal with this issue, the results have not improved yet.

Another risk comes from the quality assurance and control of foreign programmes or imported programmes in Vietnam (Welch, 2010; Tran, 2014). The abundance in number and diversity in types have made it more difficult for MOET and the government to manage. In terms of managing the foreign programmes, the Vietnamese authority still does not have a regulatory system to register or evaluate out-of-country providers (Tran, 2014). Hence, when the quality of

these imported programmes is not assessed by the national quality assurance agency – the Department of Testing and Accreditation, it is hard to make sure they are qualified. In addition to this, the universities adopting these transnational education programmes are often driven by market forces. Thus, they often focus more on profit rather than the quality of the programmes offered (Nguyen, 2011). The study of Nguyen and Tran (2018) show numerous shortcomings of the advanced programs in fully reaching the goals of MOET's proposal in 2008. According to the findings of Nguyen and Tran (2018), the programmes became fragmented, vulnerable, and unsustainable due to the lack of a thoughtful consideration of the local historical, social and cultural dimensions in operating these programs.

Regarding the challenges, Vietnamese higher education internationalisation is not mainly linked to financial constraints, but also to institutional academic issues (Welch, 2010, Nguyen et al., 2016; Vi, 2014). According to Vi (2014) and Nguyen et al. (2016), internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam is still facing a list of shortages such as lack of funding, lack of autonomy, lack of staff capacity, lack of infrastructure, lack of knowledge about international networks, lack of commitment of international partners or bureaucracy. Nguyen et al. (2016) indicate that many faculty members do not have the sufficient required skills, knowledge, and attitudes to engage in the development and delivery of international education.

## **Chapter 4. Brief Description of Two Universities in Vietnam**

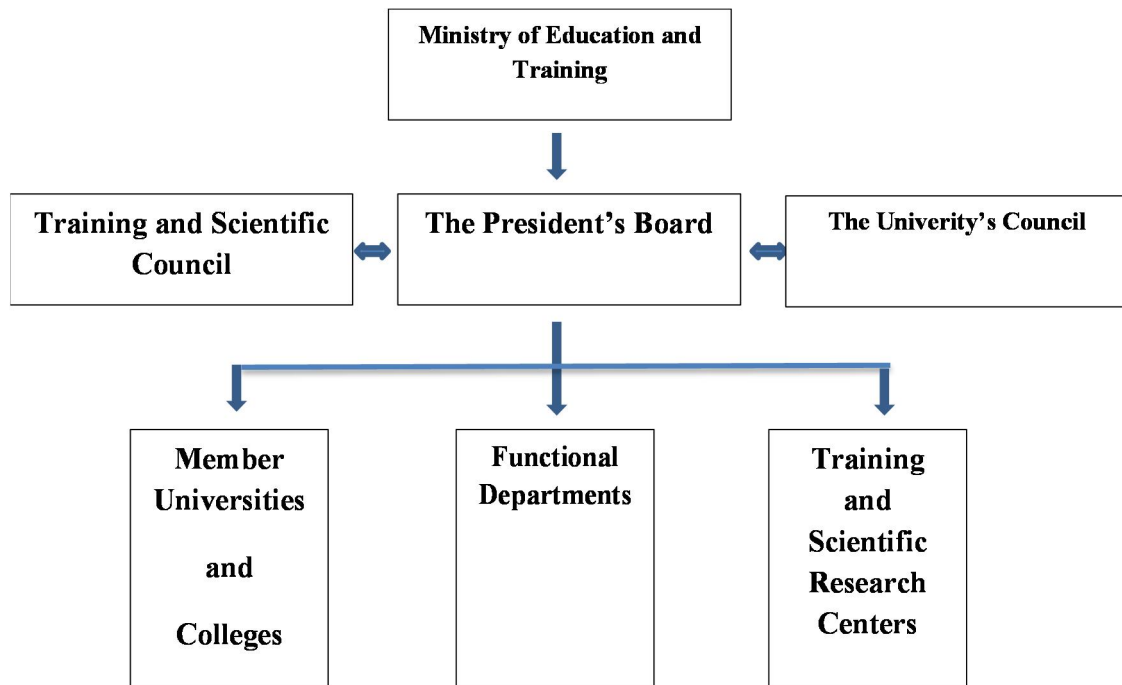
As suggested by Guruz (2008, p. 3), any attempt to study internationalisation of higher education without linking it to the evolution of its institutions, structures, systems would be incomplete. Following this guidance, this chapter sets out a brief contextualization of the two universities, which provides an overview of the institutions in terms of their establishment, organization, status, and missions. It then narrates the universities' internationalisation efforts regarding strategies and policies with the purpose of providing the readers to have the feeling of "being there" (Stake, 1995, p.63). Resources for the analysis of this chapter are mainly from the universities' websites, strategic plans, policy papers, yearbooks, and institutional reports.

### **4.1 University A**

According to the research of Dao's (2015), by the early 1990s, Vietnamese government replaced the Soviet model with the establishment of large, comprehensive universities. In line with this tendency, in 1994, University A was established by merging four institutes, known as Polytechnic University, Foreign Language Teachers Training College, Teachers Training College, and Vocational School. At the time of my data collection, University A has become one of five regional multi-disciplinary universities in Vietnam with eight institutions. Due to the scope and focus of my study, any international practices at affiliated schools, research institutes, and research centres, are not mentioned. In total, this research was conducted across four colleges of University A, which are usually called "university members" in the Vietnamese language. They are College of Science and Technology, College of Economics, College of Foreign languages, and College of Education (University website, 2017).

The organisational structure of University A is hierarchical with the authority concentrating at the top (University website, 2017). The administrative system of the University has two levels as illustrated in Figure 4.1:

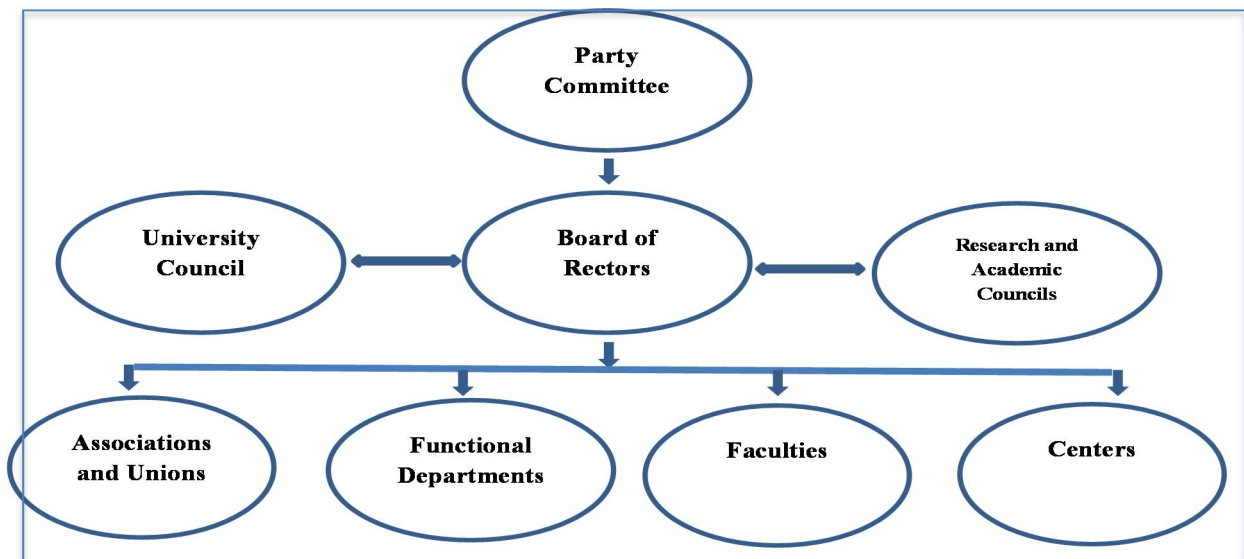
At that top level, there is the President's Board, comprising the President and Vice-Presidents. They are responsible for governing and managing the University as a whole. The President's Board has legal authority with respect to the right to use the seals and to operate the University's bank accounts.



**Figure 4.1** Organisational structure of University A

Source: Adapted from University A's website- Developed by the author of this study.

At the second level, there are colleges, functional and academic departments, and scientific research centres. Each college has its own Rector, who is usually appointed by the Minister of Education and Training. The organisational structure of each college is depicted in Figure 4.2:



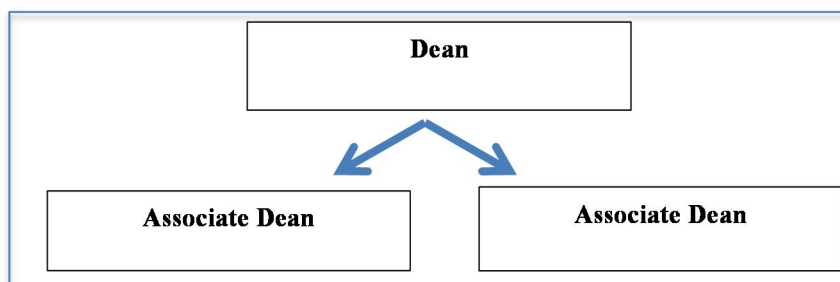
**Figure 4.2** Organisational structure of each college of University A

Source: Adapted from University A's website- Developed by the author of this study.

As shown in Figure 4.2, within each college, the Rector's Board is responsible for the governance and administration of their own institution. The Rector's Board is the highest authority of the college. They are independent in the sense that they have their own bank accounts and seals. The Rector's Board must comply with University A's charter, which requires the Board to perform their duties subject to the University's policies, including the administration of personnel affairs, academic and research activities, international cooperation, finance and physical facilities etc. (University website, 2017).

The important role of the Communist Party needs to be noted. According to the Vietnamese Constitution, each college has a Committee of Communist Party, which is called 'the Institutional Party Committee' with the mission to make sure all activities are not against the Communist ideology (Tran, 2014, p. 74). Therefore, at all levels of governance within University A, the Party exercises a controlling influence. For example, although within each college, the rector is the highest managerial post of the institution, but the highest leadership is given to the Institutional Party Committee because the rector has to consult with the Institutional Party Committee before introducing any important policies. In addition, there are Advisory Committees, for example, the Research and Academic Councils, who advise the Executive Board regarding the budget, staffing, curricula, research and innovation (University website, 2017).

Within each academic department, there is also a governance board with its own Dean, who is responsible for all faculty matters. The academics are expected to carry out both teaching and research and they are organised by the same main subject field. The organisational structure of each faculty can be illustrated in Figure 4.3 below:



**Figure 4.3** Organisational structure of each academic faculty of University A

Source: Adapted from University A's website- Developed by the author of this study.

In general, the colleges' organisational management style varies due to their own their own organisational cultures and development. Regarding to internationalisation policy, although all

colleges are strictly subject to the legislation and obligations imposed by the Moet, they are autonomous in planning for, and implementing their internationalisation plans at their own pace (University website, 2017). In fact, each college takes into account their available resources and capacity, organisational culture and other contextual factors. This is reflected in their choice of certain internationalisation components for the sustainable development of their institutions.

University A educates students at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels and in the fields of engineering, economics, natural sciences, social sciences, humanities, and medicine. After 20 years of development, the University has become not only one of the leading multidisciplinary research institutes but also a prestigious university in Vietnam. So far University A has 22 majors of Ph.D. programmes and 34 majors of Master courses (University website, 2016). As in Table 4.1:

**Table 4.1** The profile of University A

YEAR 2016		
Staff		2,064
	Administrative	657
	Academic	1,407
Student		62,442
	Undergraduate	57,475
	Master	4,807
	Ph.D.	160
Programme		201
	Undergraduate Degree	145
	Master	34
	Ph.D.	22
Research activities		
	Published Papers	820 (74) ISI
	Research Projects	250

Source: Adapted from University A's website- Developed by the author of this study.

According to the document analysis, the university's mission emphasises the creation of “opportunities and an environment for high quality, creative learning that promotes the sustainable socio-economic development of the Central- Highlands area and the whole country” (University website, 2017). In line with this, the university's core value focuses on “Quality is

always the top priority in all activities “(University website, 2015). Above all, since its foundation, the University has been defining its vision to become a leading research university in Southeast Asia and in the world (University website, 2015). The vision and mission of University A centralise on incentive policies for research activities (University website, 2017).

International cooperation plays a crucial role in the strategic development of the university. It has significantly contributed to improving educational and scientific research capacity, upgrading infrastructure, and enhancing the prestige of the university. In comparison with the date of its establishment in 1994, there is a giant leap in financial sources, human resources, renovation of academic programmes, modernisation of infrastructure, and management mechanism (University self-assessment report, 2015).

After 20 years of development, University A has established international relations with more than 170 universities of 45 countries around the world, primarily with Eastern Europe and France. Based on the agreement framework signed between University A and these foreign universities, University A has created "thousands of opportunities for students and staff to go abroad to further their study as well as welcoming international lecturers and students to study and work at University A” (University website, 2017).

The international cooperative activities have spread across all of the primary functions of the university. These activities are mobility of faculty and students, exchange programmes, internationalisation of the curriculum, joint degree-level programmes, recruitment of international students and lecturers, collaborative projects in research, technology transfer, co-organising conferences and publications, and improvement of infrastructure and facilities, etc. (University self-assessment report, 2015).

Regarding inbound and outbound lecturers, each year, the number of academic staff to study abroad is about 358, mainly funded by Project 322 or 911 or scholarships granted by the foreign government or foreign partners contributing to staff quality improvement. As a result, of the 2,300 staff, 290 have a Ph.D. degree, and 85% of teaching staff have postgraduate qualifications (University website, 2014). Moreover, the university frequently receives much support and cooperation of renowned international experts or professors from partner universities in teaching and research, contributing to enhancing the education quality of the university.

Regarding outbound and inbound students, the University has recruited international students from Laos, Cambodia, Korea and China for undergraduate and postgraduate



programmes and the university has sent a number of students to study abroad through affiliated programmes. Furthermore, the university has also received a large number of international students from United States, Australia, Japan, and Norway for short-term internship or exchange courses annually in the framework of international cooperation between two parties or through international projects such as Erasmus+, for example, HR4Asia. HR4Asia is a project granted by European Community with the funding of 810,985 EUR and coordinated by University A, which would run in 3 years from 2017 to 2019, including 4 European universities and 8 Asian universities (University website, 2017).

Regarding collaborative degree-level programmes, University A has deployed a variety of collaborative programmes through long-term cooperation relations with prestigious universities accredited in the world as depicted in Table 4.2:

**Table 4.2** Joint degree programmes of University A

Major	Level and Form of Programs	Partner
Business Administration	Master	Sunderland University, UK
Business Administration	Undergraduate (3+1), (4+0)	Sunderland University, UK; Keuka College, USA
Engineering in Automatic Production	Master	Lycée Louis Legrand Paris University, France
Engineering in Industry Informatics	Undergraduate	Lycée Louis Legrand Paris University, France
Information Technology	Undergraduate	University of the South - Toulon - Var, France
Advanced programme: Digital System	Undergraduate	The University of Washington, Seattle, USA
Advanced programme: Embedded System	Undergraduate	Portland State University, Oregon, USA
Vietnamese Language	Undergraduate 3+1	China
Chinese Language	Undergraduate 3+1 and 2+2	China

Source: Adapted from the University website - Developed by the author of this study.

The history of high-quality degree programmes started in 1997. The Vietnamese government selected University A as one of the four prestigious universities for launching the Programme of Excellent Engineers in Vietnam (PFIEV). The project began in 1999 after the senior representatives from two sides had discussed the curriculum and contents in Automatic

Production, and then Industry Informatics and Software Engineering. These high quality degree programmes have been undertaken in the framework of cooperation between Vietnamese Government and the Government of the French Republic. Up to now, 25 high-quality undergraduate programmes have been established and developed across all colleges of University A. These programmes are slightly different with domestic programmes in terms of the purposes and financial or technical aid provided by the initial sponsors (University website, 2016).

Regarding joint degree-level programmes, in May 2005, University A signed a cooperative agreement with Towson University (Maryland, United States) on the BSc International Business Administration in two phases (2-2 programme). Then in May 2006, University A expanded the cooperation with the University of Sunderland (UK) in Bachelors of Business Administration International. In May 2008, University A officially signed an agreement with the University of Stirling (UK) in Master of Communication Management (Media Management).

In terms of Advanced Programmes, the Vietnamese government has funded these programmes for enhancing the quality of academic programmes in alignment with the international standard. In 2006, the University was responsible for implementing Advanced Programme in Electronic and Communication Engineering (ECE) in collaboration with University of Washington. In 2008, the University again was responsible for implementing Advanced Programme in Electrical Engineering (ES) in collaboration with Portland State University.

There are 3 high-quality degree programmes (Mechanical Engineering, Information Technology Engineering, and Electrical–Electronics Engineering) accredited and recognised by the Commission des Titres d'Ingenieur (European standards) and two advanced programmes accredited by the Asian University Network (AUN-QA standards) in 2016. These achievements marked a milestone of the University in being recognised as providing highly qualified programmes for the increasing demands of society. In annual reports of University A, collaborative academic programmes are increasing in number, which helps many more students in Central Vietnam and the Western Highlands to access advanced curricula and learning conditions.

Apart from academic programmes, research is also considered as a strong feature of the University. In particular, University A has conducted scientific research projects at three

hierarchical authorities, from the national, provincial, and institutional level. In parallel with these domestic scientific research projects, University A has implemented many activities and policies to develop international science publications (ISP) in ISI / SCOPUS prestigious journals. University A has also established research groups in strong areas, creating a favourable environment for larger-scale research collaborative projects to be undertaken and using the university's resources effectively. In 2016, University A published about 200 international articles, implemented 250 research projects and gained about 30 billion VND from technology transfer and manufacturer contracts (University website, 2016). In addition, University A jointly conducted 15 international projects with a total budget of 5.5 million Euros. Two of those are ERASMUS (European projects) and USAID COMET (U.S. Agency for International Development) (University website, 2016). In addition, University A has opportunities to receive official development aids in improving laboratories, facilities, and personnel from foreign universities and organisations from Japan, France, and the United States. It also received funding in the form of machines and equipment from many companies such as Texas Instrument, Intel, Unitec, Microsoft, etc.

Over the past 20 years, the university's international collaborative activities have actively contributed to developing and improving the quality of education, scientific research, and facilities of the university (University self-assessment report, 2015). All the international collaborative activities are grouped into two main fields: (1) education collaboration and (2) research cooperation and technological transfer. With proper attention, significant investment, and flexible management policy, the university has provided a wide range of international collaborative activities for its students, staff, and faculty. Engaging in these international collaborative programmes and research projects, the university's faculty, staff, and students also have acquired and enhanced international experience, skills, and abilities.

According to the self-assessment report of all the colleges of the university yearly, international collaborative activities in education, training and scientific research are feasible, effective, and efficient and in compliance with the State regulations. Especially, the university has paid a strong support in international research collaboration, considering it an essential strategy for development. This cooperation has made certain contributions, not only for improving the research capacity of faculty and staff, or strengthening the research production of

the university, but also for the university's image and prestige in becoming a leading research-oriented university in Southeast Asia in 2020.

#### **4.2 University B**

University B is originated from Teacher Training College founded in 1997. University B became a public university in Vietnam, following Decree No. 1682/CP dated June 8, 2007 (University website, 2017)

As a third-tier or provincial university, University B does not have member universities or colleges, or research institutes. The organisational structure of University B is similar to the structure of one college of University A as depicted in Figure 4.2. At the top level is the Rector's Board, comprising the Rector and Vice Rectors. The Rector's Board is responsible for general management and has the right to use seals and to operate bank accounts of the University. At the next level are faculties, functional departments, and centres, all of which are under the direct administration of the Rector's Board (University website, 2017).

The Rector is the chief executive officer and leads the administration of the University. There are two Vice-Rectors with separate responsibilities across the areas of finance, teaching, research, international cooperation, and infrastructure. The Rector and the Vice Rectors are all appointed by the Provincial People's Committee (University website, 2017).

Several committees or councils, for example the Academic Council and Scientific Research Council, report to the Rector's Board. As suggested by their titles, the former is primarily responsible for teaching and curricula, while the latter is primarily responsible for research.

Similar to University A, University B's Communist Party is the leading force of the institution. University B's Party Committee consists of a Party Secretary, a Deputy Secretary and senior and junior senior Party members from all units across the University. The current Party Secretary is also the Rector. The Party also has a Discipline Committee, with responsibility for checking compliance with ethical regulations and party discipline across the University (University website, 2017).

The Rector's Board must also take account of the decisions and priorities of MOET. It must also be accountable to Provincial People's Committee, especially for the matters related to personnel (University website, 2017).

At the faculty and departmental levels, similar to the governance in University A as shown in Figure 4.3, deans and vice-deans provide management at the faculty level, and heads and vice-heads provide management at the departmental level. Faculties and departments have their own academic committees in order to consider issues of teaching, learning, and curricular.

Currently, the university has 8 administrative offices, 12 academic departments, and four centres, providing 13 university-level study programs, 13 college-level programs and 02 vocational level programs. Moreover, the university provides three modes of study: full-time, part-time, and distance learning courses (University website, 2016).

The common funding pattern in public universities is that state funding makes up approximately 70% and tuition and fees make up approximately 30%

On University B's website, the University claims that it has provided the country with "thousands of qualified workers in multiple disciplines" (University website, 2016) ranging from technology, economics, and business administration to foreign languages and teacher training. The vision and mission of University B have developed in the orientation of a multidisciplinary and multilevel institution towards an important centre for the development of education, training, scientific research in the province.

**Table 4.3** The profile of University B

YEAR 2016		
Staff		
	Administrative	112
	Academic	155
Student		
	Undergraduate	5,424
Programme		201
	Undergraduate Associate Degree	37
	Bachelor	14
	Associate	25
Research activities		
	Published Papers	105

Source: Adapted from the University website- Developed by the author of this study.

As shown in the Table 4.3, University B is a relatively small university within Vietnamese higher education system. According to the University's statistics in 2016, of the 267 members of

staff, 155 held academic appointments and 112 held administrative positions. A total of 9 academic staff had doctoral qualifications and 184 had master's degrees. Since its foundation, University B's international cooperation has been conducted under the decentralization of functions and duties complying with the State regulations on foreign relations. The international cooperation activities of University B mainly focus on training Lao students and receiving funding resources from non-government organisations.

In the collaborative framework in education between the Vietnamese and Lao governments, University B began to provide human resource development for Laos' provinces since 2006. In this cooperative framework, University B has been continuously receiving Laotian students in academic programmes under the directives of the Provincial People's Committee. Many students have completed their courses and have been assigned to key agencies in Laos.

Apart from this, from 2008, University B started to receive financial, technical, and professional assistance from a Belgian Flemish organisation (VVOB) to contribute to improving its educational quality and infrastructure. From 2012, the University B started to establish international partnerships with Paz y Desarrollo (Pyd), a Spanish International NGO, focusing on gender equality in order to improve the teaching and learning process at the university. These non-profit organisations provided the university with financial investment, facilities, teaching and learning equipment, books, reference materials; however, the quantity was still limited in terms of scale and size.

In addition to this, University B has been sending staff for postgraduate study overseas under the funding provision of State and other sources, contributing to improvement in staff quality. The university also has sent many delegations of faculty members to pay a working visit to its foreign partners within the region such as Laos, Thailand, and China, etc. The university also attracted many foreign experts to visit and work with the university. For example, experts from the Fulbright programme came to help the university faculty and staff in professional knowledge development. Besides, just over 30 articles have been published in international prestigious journals or conferences since 1998.

## **Summary**

From the discussion above, it is apparent that there is a gap concerning both theoretical and empirical evidence of internationalisation in the Vietnamese higher education context. It triggers

a need for insight into how Vietnamese universities conceptualise and implement internationalisation in their actual circumstance. The issues will be analysed in the next chapters.

## **Chapter 5. Methodology and Research Design**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the methodology and methods adopted to carry out this empirical research.

**Specifically, the aims of this chapter are:**

- a) To present the research paradigm and research methodology employed, and
- b) To provide explanations for the various research decisions taken throughout.

### **5.2 Research Philosophy: Pragmatism and Interpretivist**

The significance of paradigms is that they guide the researcher from thought to action and shape how researchers perceive the world (i.e. the worldview). An appropriate choice of a paradigm guides the researchers, not only in the choice of method(s) but also in ontological and fundamental ways (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, as cited in Gray, 2014, p. 27). Without locating an appropriate paradigm as the first step, there is no basis for subsequent choices regarding research methodology, methods, or processes of data collection and analysis.

Guided by the research questions as well as the nature of the internationalisation phenomenon, this research adopted a mixed method multiple case study design. This type of mixed methods study, according to Creswell and Clark (2018, p. 116), uses the quantitative and qualitative data collection, results, and integration to provide in-depth evidence for the cases. Following Creswell and Clark (2018, p. 116), this study used a core design (convergent) within the framework of multiple case studies. In a convergent design, both types of data were collected concurrently and the results were merged together to examine two cases.

In terms of the philosophical assumption, according to Creswell and Clark (2011, p. 78), the work of merging two approaches, for example, collecting and analysing quantitative and qualitative data and results, which is known as a mixed methods design, is well suited with pragmatism. This philosophical position is also argued by Cohen et al. (2011, p. 23) as a pluralist approach to research, drawing on multiple methods of data collection and analysis. In pragmatism, instead of emphasising on the methods, researchers emphasise the research problem and utilise all approaches to understand the problem (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 23; Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 27). Accordingly, pragmatism has a positive attitude to both qualitative and quantitative approaches; therefore, it uses qualitative techniques to inform the quantitative aspect of a study and vice versa (Denscombe, 2010, p. 280; Robson, 2011, p. 31). Generally, in taking a pragmatic standpoint, it regards 'reality' as both objective and socially constructed and its mode



of inquiry then makes use of induction (to identify patterns), deduction (testing theories and hypotheses) and the combination of these two for the best explanations of the research results (John & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, as cited in Gray, 2014, p. 195).

Further, the main purpose of the research is to explore internationalisation as a social phenomenon with its complexity, via not only the participants' multiple perspectives and their interpretation but also my interpretation as a researcher. In the end, this study aims to generate and describe two cases (University A and University B); therefore, the philosophical assumption for this study also includes an interpretivist approach, holding the belief that "realities are local, specific and constructed; they are socially and experientially based, and depend on the individuals or groups holding them" (O'Donoghue, 2007, pp. 16-17). According to Matthews and Ross (2010), interpretive paradigm allows researchers to view the world through the perceptions and experiences of the participants. Cohen et al., (2011, p. 36), for example, considered an interpretivist approach as discovering the reality through participant's views, their own background and experiences. In the same vein, Willis (2007, p. 194) also argues that different people and different groups have different perceptions of the world, therefore, external reality is variable (p. 194).

In general, following all of these scholars above, I took an interpretivist approach for this study with the belief that there is no particular right or correct path to knowledge. Instead, I, as a particular interpretive researcher, approached my research problem from subjects, typically from people who own their experiences and are of a particular group or culture. Generally, I value subjectivity (Willis, 2007, p. 110) and accept multiple perspectives (Matthews and Ross, 2010) in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the situation - particularly here is about the conceptual understanding and practice of internationalisation in the Vietnamese context.

### **5.3 Research Approach: Justification of Mixed Methodology for This Study**

A research methodology is a model, which entails theoretical principles as well as a framework that provides guidelines about how research is done in the context of a particular paradigm (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 32). There are three approaches for a research design, namely the quantitative approach, the qualitative approach, and mixed methods approach (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell & Clark, 2011). Kumar (2014, p. 32) differentiates three types of research as: structured approach (quantitative), unstructured approach (qualitative), structured and/or unstructured approach (mixed or multiple methods). The main objective of a qualitative

study, according to Kumar (2014, p. 32), is to describe the variation and diversity in a phenomenon or situation with a very flexible approach while quantitative research is to quantify the variation and diversity with a fixed approach.

The choice of Quantitative, Qualitative or Mixed methodology as a means of investigation is driven by the nature of research problems and research questions. According to Yin, questions asking ‘how’ or ‘why’ are often of a qualitative nature while those asking ‘what,’ ‘where’ and ‘who’ questions are quantitative (2014, pp. 10-11). For this study, within the six research questions, they are ‘what’ and ‘how’ types, which suggests a strong-mixed methods study (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 24). On this basis, the study’s research questions cannot be answered sufficiently by drawing only on one or the other quantitative or qualitative methods, but it requires both types of data (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 24).

Qualitative data used in this thesis to seek a detailed understanding of internationalisation of higher education which has not been previously studied or investigated and bound by a particular context (Vietnamese universities) in which they operate. Quantitative data used to discover the main trends in respondents’ views on the internationalisation of higher education at those cases (Patton, 2002). Insightful information generated from qualitative methods (including semi-structured interviews and document analysis) will complement shallow statistical results of quantitative methods (questionnaire survey), providing a more complete understanding of internationalisation in the Vietnamese higher education context.

The quantitative data are systematic and standardised, enhancing objectivity of the study and the generalisability of research findings (Patton, 2002), yet their findings can be shallow and lacking insights. In contrast, the qualitative measures and data are neither systematic nor standardised, but they have the potential to elicit participants’ points of view hence generating rich, in-depth information (Patton, 2002). Thus, by combining both quantitative and qualitative methods, it is expected that this thesis can neutralise the weaknesses of these methods while increasing the overall strengths of the research that is conducted and also allow for a complete analysis to be presented (Tashakkori & Teddie, 1998).

The study is exploratory: The main objective of the research is ‘finding something out’ (Newby, 2010), seeking to explore how the internationalisation of higher education is interpreted and implemented in the Vietnamese context through the lens of academics. It is based on the assumption that “internationalisation of higher education is the process of integrating

international/intercultural dimensions into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution” (Knight, 1997, p. 8). The study employs but also significantly develops an existing theoretical approach to internationalisation of higher education, which is originally constructed by Knight & De Wit (1995), further developed by Knight (1997, 2004), and de Wit (2002). Accordingly, qualitative and quantitative methods are used to address a single research question, and if the different research methods yield similar results, there can be more significant certainty in the study’s research findings. This strategy is known as triangulation or cross-validation (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 24; Jensen & Laurie, 2016, p. 13).

## **5.4 Choice of a Mixed Method Multiple Case Study**

### **5.4.1 Mixed methods**

The research design is an important aspect of academic research because it draws a map for conducting research (Yin, 2009, p. 103). It provides the researcher detailed logical plans for collecting, organising, and analysing data. This exploratory study is based on a mixed-methods approach and selects two Vietnamese public universities as a multiple case study to achieve the research objectives.

According to Creswell (2003), the idea of mixing different methods probably originated from 1959 when Campbell and Fiske used multiple methods to study the validity of psychological traits. Quantitative and qualitative methods can be used interdependently (and in a range of different sequences) or independently, focusing either on the same research question or different questions (Gray, 2014). Creswell and Clark (2011, p. 5) also have defined mixed methods as the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently or sequentially, and the integration of data at one or more stages in the research procedure.

The main benefit of the mixed methods approach is that both approaches (quantitative and qualitative) have strengths and weaknesses (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 8). Qualitative research and quantitative research provide different pictures or perspectives, and the combination of quantitative and qualitative data provides a more complete understanding of the research problem than either approach by itself (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 8). In particular, the combination of both methods could enlarge both the scope and depth of information as well as maximise the validity and reliability of the research study data and findings (Cohen et al., 2007). The use of qualitative methods provides details and insights about the subject of inquiry, making

the study richer and thicker; while the utilization of quantitative methods of inquiry enhances objectivity of the study and generalizability of research findings (Patton, 2002).

According to Creswell and Clark (2011, p. 205), there are six strategies for combining quantitative and qualitative methods, as depicted in Table 5.1

**Table 5.1** Type of mixed methods strategies- sequential and concurrent designs

Type of Mixed Methods Strategies	
Sequential Explanatory Strategy	Quantitative data collection and analysis is conducted first, followed by qualitative data collection and analysis that builds on the results of the first phase. Priority is given to quantitative data and the methods are integrated during the interpretation stage of the study. This strategy may or may not have a specific theoretical perspective.
Sequential Exploratory Strategy	Qualitative data collection and analysis is conducted first, followed by quantitative data collection and analysis that builds on the results of the first phase. Priority is given to qualitative data and the methods are integrated during the interpretation stage of the study. This strategy may or may not also have a specific theoretical perspective.
Sequential Transformative Strategy	This consists two data collection phases, however, either method may be used first or the priority may be given to either qualitative or quantitative methods or both. The two methods are integrated during the interpretation stage. This strategy has a theoretical perspective to guide the study.
Concurrent Embedded Strategy	Both types of data are collected and analysed at the same time. One of the methods has a priority and the integration is done in the data analysis stage. This strategy may or may not also have a specific theoretical perspective.
Concurrent Transformative Strategy	The two types of data are collected at the same time and may have equal or unequal priority. The integration is usually done during the data analysis stage, but it can also take place in the interpretation stage. The strategy is guided by the researcher's use of a specific theoretical perspective.
Concurrent Triangulation Strategy	Both types of data are collected and analysed at the same time. Priority is equal between the methods and the integration occurs during the interpretation stage of the study.

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Clark (2011, p. 205)- Developed by the author of this study.

In general, there are two main types of characteristics, which emerge from the mixed methods strategy as described in the table above: the concurrent design with aims to converge or merge qualitative and quantitative data in parallel, or the sequential model, which uses one type of data to extend or build on the other. In concurrent designs, both forms of data are collected at the same time and then are integrated to make the interpretation of the overall results (Creswell, 2003, 2009, 2014). In sequential designs, the researcher seeks to elaborate or expand the findings of one method from another method and collect and analyse one type of data before conducting

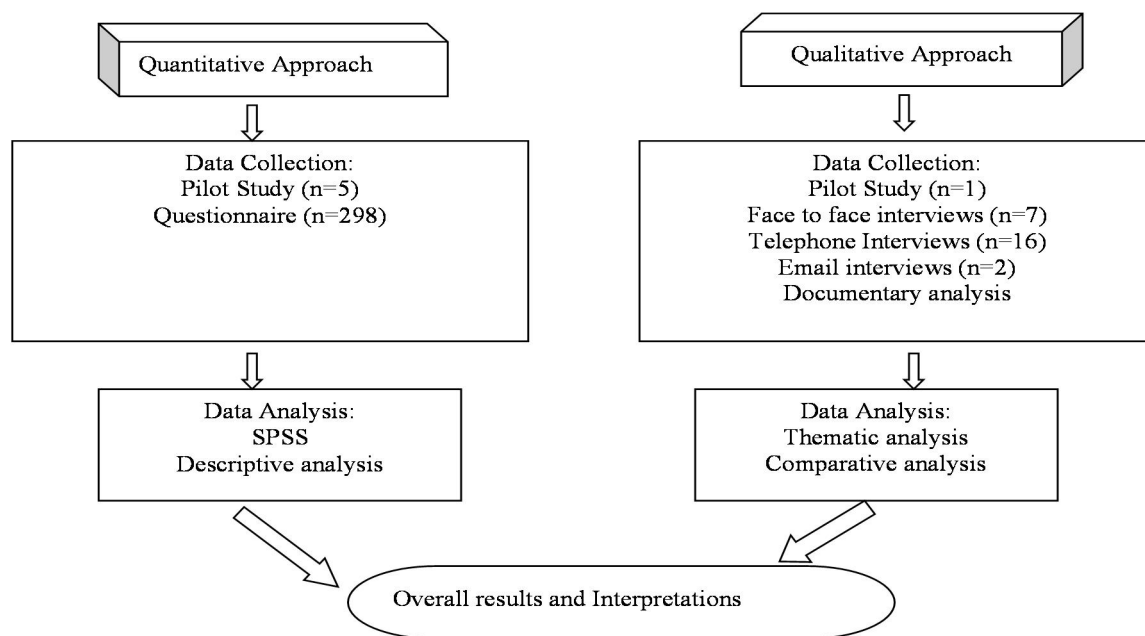
another data type in two distinct phases (Creswell, 2003, 2009, 2014). Sequential approaches are useful when a researcher needs one data set initially to inform a subsequent activity such as designing an intervention, selecting participants or developing an instrument (Creswell, 2003, 2009, 2014).

#### **5.4.2 Mixed methods- The convergent design**

In order to answer the research question and meet the objectives, this study employed Mixed Methods Convergent Design.

The main purpose in adopting this one phase triangulation design is to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic (Morse, 1991, as cited in Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 77) to best understand the research problem. This chosen design is based on the purpose that I would like to compare and contrast quantitative statistical results with qualitative findings for corroboration and validation purposes. I also used this design for illustrating quantitative results with qualitative findings, synthesising complementary quantitative and qualitative results to develop a complete understanding of internationalisation of higher education in Vietnamese context and comparing the results across two cases (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 77).

In this design (see Figure 5.1), both quantitative data and qualitative data are collected concurrently but separately. Priority is equal and given to both forms of data. Data analysis is separated between each typical quantitative and qualitative analytic procedure, and the integration or comparison occurs at the data interpretation or discussion stage (Hanson, Creswell, Clark, Petska & Creswell, 2005, p. 228). This strategy is illustrated as below:



**Figure 5.1** Visual diagram of the concurrent triangulation design used in this study

Source: Adapted from Hanson et al. (2005, p. 228); Creswell & Clark (2011) - Developed by the author of this study.

### 5.4.3 A case study analysis

According to Yin:

A case study is a strategy for doing research, which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context using multiple sources of evidence (2009, p.136).

This implies that case studies involve looking at a case or phenomenon in its real-life context, which is ‘local’ and ‘immediate’ in character and meanings and it will not be constant “across time and space” (Dyer, 1995, p. 48, as cited in Cohen et al., 2011, p. 290). Researchers have been using a case study with the purpose of providing a high amount of detail or a rich description of the process, which is bounded in ‘time’ and ‘space’ (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014; Gray, 2014).

Thus a case-study approach is the most appropriate for this study as internationalisation of higher education is a contemporary phenomenon and it is operating in a ‘real-life context’ -in educational settings within two Vietnamese public universities, which are the cases. This empirical research aims to describe and analyse how the internationalisation of higher education of two Vietnamese public universities is perceived and why and how the case universities have

undertaken internationalisation of higher education in their respective contexts. This study also highlights the characteristics of internationalisation of higher education in the institutional life of two different universities in Vietnam. Therefore, in this study, the data collected and analysed is strongly interwoven together with the theoretical framework of higher education internationalisation. This case study aims not only to advance knowledge and give theoretical insight into the internationalisation of higher education in the Vietnamese context but also to find problems to refine internationalisation in the cases through systematic and reflective data analysis.

The central characteristic of a case study method concerns the ‘number of the cases’ to be investigated and the ‘amount of detailed information’ that the research would be likely to obtain (Yin, 2009). A multiple-case study approach allows the researcher “to analyse within each setting and across settings” (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 550). Therefore, this study adopted a multiple case study design, in which the two sites were selected for strategic reasons: a) to better explore the unique internationalisation of higher education situations in two typical types of universities in Vietnam: the second and the third and b) to find similarities and differences between the case-study universities.

Furthermore, the case study approach allows multiple sources of evidence and a wide range of methods for data collection to be employed. Case studies may use quantitative or qualitative methods, and many case study designs use a mix of these methods to collect and analyse data (Gray, 2014; Cohen et al., 2011; Yin, 2009). This is a real strength of case studies as it covers a full variety of methods for data collection (e.g., observation, interviews, documentary analysis, archives, and questionnaires) (Cohen et al., 2011). Therefore, I employed both case study and mixed methods approach in seeking the advantages of the combination of these two research methods for data collection and analysis. By applying this technique, qualitative and quantitative data are collected and analysed in order to understand the case in depth, and in its natural setting, recognising its complexity and its context (King & Horrocks, 2010). This mixed methods case study aims not only to be a contribution to the body of research in higher education internationalisation but also to find solutions to refine internationalisation in the cases through systematic and reflective data analysis.

## **In defence of the case study method**

For this study, the main accusation against the case study approach has been that it does not follow any systematic procedure and allows biased views to influence the findings and conclusions (Yin, 2014, p. 19). However, according to Yin (2014, p. 20), this bias can happen in any research strategy if they are not carefully designed, such as in the conduct of experiments, or in designing questionnaires for surveys or even in historical research. Another concern is that the case study allows very little scope for scientific generalisation (Yin, 2014, p. 20). Yin (2009, 2014) argued that case study is not suitable for generalisation, not only because sample size is small but also the cases are bounded or narrowed by 'time and space'.

In defence of the generalizability of case study research, Yin (2009, 2014) argues that the generalisation power of the case is its ability to help researchers to understand other similar cases, phenomena or situations, not the statistical generalisation. With these concerns in mind, the research objective is to capture these cases in their uniqueness and to represent them authentically in their terms. In this study, the two case universities were selected as each represents an example of each typical type of Vietnamese higher education institutions. The study contributes to the literature concerned with the internationalisation process operating in higher education institutions in terms of conceptualisation and practices.

### **5.5 Selection of Research Sites**

The research aims and questions lead to decide where to conduct the research and whom to include as participants. Patton (2002) suggested two ways of choosing a purposive sampling of research sites: typical case sampling and maximum variation sampling, which has been found to be suitable for this study. Typical case sampling is used when the researcher is interested in the typicality of the units (a single example of a broader class or one of its type) and this helps to compare the findings from a study using typical case sampling with other similar samples (Mathews & Ross, 2010, p. 128; Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 159). Maximum variation sampling involves the selection of cases that illustrate the range of variation in the phenomenon to be studied to determine whether common themes, patterns, and outcomes cut across this variation (Mathews & Ross, 2010, p. 167; Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 158). In addition to this, convenience and cost factors, as Patton (2002) suggested, need to be considered in choosing the sites for research. In following all of these, I selected the two research sites based on three



criteria: (a) sites with typical character; (b) sites with diversified contexts; and (c) sites with accessibility.

In particular, firstly, regarding sites with typical character, the two institutions were selected because they represent two typical popular types of public HEIs in Vietnam- for this study: a provincial and regional university. This choice is based on the suggested criteria of Yin (2014, p. 56), in which the case is chosen because it represents many other similar cases. Case One – University A is a regional institution while Case Two - University B is a provincial institution although both are multi-disciplinary universities.

Secondly, these two cases were chosen based on the assumption that they deliberately and knowingly vary for assessing the significance of the difference (Newby, 2010, p. 54). In classifying Vietnamese higher education institutions, this study used the theoretical frame factor of Hopkin (2004) and the Vietnamese administrative system (MOET, 2000). Following the frame factors of Hopkin (2004), Vietnamese higher education institutions can be classified into: mature (the traditional elaborate higher education systems of developed states), evolving (younger higher education systems) and embryonic (higher education systems that are at the early stage of development). Therefore, University A was classified as evolving, and University B was categorised as embryonic. Further, according to the administrative system, Vietnamese universities are grouped into three categories according to three levels: at the national level, they are national, or flagship, or the first tier universities; at the regional level, they are regional universities or the second tier universities; and at the provincial level, they are provincial universities or the third tier universities (Nguyen, 2011, p. 14; Huynh, 2016, p. 44). Thus, University A, as a regional university, is managed directly by the state through a ministry, and University B, as a provincial university, must report to both ministry and the provincial governments. In general, these two selected universities are distinguished from each other regarding history, foundation, size features, and issues of hierarchy, reputation, vision, mission, and function. As such, the study expected to identify both similarities and contrasting results in these two different universities.

Finally, apart from the fact that these two different universities meet the criteria of maximum variation sampling, the feasibility of access is also an important consideration. During the period of collecting the data, I had no difficulty in getting the access to these two research sites as one is my own workplace and the other is my previous place as a postgraduate student.

## 5.6 Data Collection Strategy

To construct a valid and accountable single case study, at the data collection stage, a “triangulation” approach has been adopted to provide multiple sources and sufficient evidence for the analysis of the study. In this research, a survey questionnaire, semi-structured interview, and documentary analysis were used as the primary sources for data collection and analysis. These sources of data provide a broad range of information for the study of the higher education internationalisation in two Vietnamese universities. Participants were systematically selected from the academics within each institution. These methods of data collection and analysis assisted me in finding answers to the research questions as shown in Table 5.2:

**Table 5.2** Linking research questions and data collection

No.	Research Questions	Methods of Data Collection/Analysis	Methods of Data Provision
1.	How do academics at two universities in Vietnam perceive the concept of internationalisation of higher education?	Semi-structured interview Documentary source	Academics’ interpretation, public document
2.	What are the perceived institutional rationales for internationalisation at Vietnamese universities?	Semi-structured interview Survey Documentary sources	Academics’ perception, Public documents
3.	How internationalisation strategies/programmes are being implemented at Vietnamese universities?	Semi-structured interview, Survey, Documentary sources	Academics’ perception, Public documents
4.	What are the institutional risks associated with the promotion of internationalisation?	Semi-structured interview Survey	Academics’ perception
5.	What are the obstacles faced by Vietnamese universities in implementing internationalisation?	Semi-structured interview, Survey, Documentary sources	Academics’ perception, Public documents
6.	Which aspects of internationalisation strategy should be prioritized in the future?	Semi-structured interview, Survey, Documentary sources	Academics’ perception, Public documents

Source: Developed by the author of this study

### 5.6.1. Samples and sampling selection

***Interview participants.*** The research used a purposive sampling method (Bryman, 2012, pp. 422-424) and maximum variation sampling strategy (Cohen et al., 2011, pp. 162-163) for choosing participants. First, according to Creswell & Clark (2011, p. 173), the purposive sampling method enables detailed exploration and understanding of the central theme or puzzles which the researcher wishes to study. In a purposive sampling strategy, participants are selected because they can purposefully inform the central phenomenon in the study (Creswell, 2009). The logic and power of the purposive sampling lie in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth (Patton, 2002). Patton (2002) also guides that it is better to focus on a small number of carefully selected participants rather than gather standardised information from a large and statistically significant sample. Therefore, this strategy is considered as appropriateness for this study as I intentionally select participants who have a sufficient and appropriate knowledge and experiences of internationalisation regarding its concept and practices (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 174; Gilbert & Stoneman, 2016, p. 307).

The study also employed a ‘snowball sampling’ (Punch, 2014, p. 162; Gilbert & Stoneman, 2016, p. 236) method to take advantage of any useful suggestions early participants had about additional appropriate participants. The study focuses on academics’ perspectives. The choice of this particular group has been guided by Mertova (2013, p. 116), who indicated that senior academics (such as heads of faculties or departments and associate deans) played significant roles in instigating and implementing change in higher education.

Therefore, participants are the Vice Rector or Vice Heads, the Deans and Heads of Departments, and senior lecturers of the selected universities and departments at each of the two universities. The Vice Rector was chosen because they have a lot of influence on various decisions, policies, and strategies of the universities. The Deans of functional departments were selected because they play major roles in developing, leading, managing strategic plans and activities at the university level. The Heads of the academic faculties were selected because they play major roles in developing, leading, managing, and implementing strategic plans and activities at the departmental level. Lecturers from the academic departments involved in international programmes also were selected. Detailed information on participants is presented in Appendix 2.

For this study, the criterion of saturation was applied to decide the number of interviewees for each case. According to Bryman (2012, p. 426), the criterion for sample size is whatever it takes to achieve saturation. As a result, among 25 interview participants (senior managers or heads of the departments, lecturers) in total, 15 interview participants in University A and 10 interview participants in University B. Interviews were conducted in three forms: face-to-face, by telephone, and by email. The respondents represent various academic disciplines and academic programmes of these universities. The total number of interview participants is depicted in Table 5.3:

**Table 5.3** The sample size of interviewees

Interview participants	Study site	Quantity
Lecturers	Case 1	2
	Case 2	1
Academic managers	Case 1	4
	Case 2	5
Administrative Managers/ Vice Deans of College	Case 1	9
	Case 2	4

Source: Developed by the author of this study

**Questionnaire respondents.** For the questionnaire, the sample size was decided by two factors: the size of the target population and the desired accuracy of the study. In addition, according to Bryman (2012, p. 197), the most basic consideration is the absolute size of a sample, not its relative size.

However, the number of academics of University A is 10 times more than University B, therefore an equal sample size between the two research sites is inapplicable. Supposing that drawing 100 individuals for each case, then the representative participants for University A were round 5 percent of the total population. However, in ensuring the acceptable level of sampling errors, margin errors must be between 4% to 8% at the 95% confidence level of this result (Martínez-Mesa, González-Chica, Bastos, Bonamigo, & Duquia, 2014, p. 611). For example, for this study, as the number of academics at University A is 2340 in total, the appropriate size of sample study must be between (141 to 487 participants). In addition, according to Bryman (2012, p. 425), the broader the scope of the study, the more participants will need to be carried out. Therefore, I decided to choose approximately around 10 % as the target of the population (240).

The number of academics at University B is 241 in total; the appropriate size is from 93 to 178 participants. Therefore, I decided 120 as the target population (50 per cent of the total). Out

of 360 academics, 263 participants completed and responded to the survey, in which University A was 189, constituted a response rate 78.7% and University B was 74 with response rate 60.8%.

The selection of research respondents for the survey was also based on purposive sampling methods, which is an appropriate design approach when understanding of a particular phenomenon is desired (Robson, 2011, p. 275). In a purposive sampling strategy, participants are selected because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study (Creswell, 2009). The logic and power of purposeful sampling lie in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth (Patton, 2002). The purposive sampling strategy for the questionnaire used in this study also aimed at increasing representativeness and heterogeneity thereby taking into account a number of criteria including disciplines and departments, experiences, and professional ranks. This applied maximum variation sampling, in which diverse individuals are chosen who are expected to hold different perspectives on the central phenomenon, and here about internationalisation of higher education (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 174, Cohen et al., 2011, p. 157). The central idea is that I would like to have a complex picture of internationalisation of higher education in both these cases. Nevertheless, the outcomes of the selection process were also influenced by other factors including accessibility, the participant's knowledge, and experience of internationalisation and willingness to participate in the research study, and my limited time and resources. The demographics of survey respondents are presented in Table 5.4:

**Table 5.4** Frequency and percentage of the distribution of survey respondents

Information of survey respondents	N	%	N	%
Degree	University A (N= 189)		University B (N=74)	
Doctor	59	31.2	4	5.4
Master	119	63.0	66	89.2
Bachelor	11	5.8	4	5.4
Status	University A (N= 189)		University B (N=74)	
Lecturer	159	84.1	67	90.5
Principal Lecturer	19	10.1	7	9.5
Associate Professor	10	5.3	0	0.0
Years of experience	University A (N= 189)		University B (N=74)	
0-5 years	56	29.6	8	10.8
6-10 years	57	30.2	30	40.5
11-15 years	21	11.1	22	29.7
16-20 years	17	9.0	10	13.5
More than 20 years	38	20.1	4	5.4
Fields of working	University A (N= 189)		University B (N=74)	
Economics	39	20.6	10	13.5
Education	53	28.0	27	36.5
Foreign languages	39	20.6	22	29.7
Science and technology	58	30.7	15	20.3

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

As depicted in Table 5.4, of the 189 respondents of University A completing the questionnaires, 30.7 per cent (58) were from the fields of science and technology, making up the highest number of participants, 28.0 per cent (53) of participants were working in the area of education, 20.6 per cent (39) belonged to the field of economics, and 20.6 per cent (39) were from the field of foreign languages. In terms of their academic qualifications, 63.0 per cent (119) of respondents held a master's degrees, making up the largest proportion of University A's sample, followed by 31.2 (59) per cent of respondents with doctoral degrees and 5.8 per cent (11) with a bachelor's degrees. Regarding the academic title, a large majority (84.1 % (159)) of respondents were lecturers, 10.1 per cent (19) were principal lecturers, and associate professors were 5.3 per cent (10).

Regarding the length of working time at University A, 29.6 per cent (56) of respondents had less than five years of experience whereas about 30.2 per cent (57) had been working at University A from six to ten years and 40.2 per cent had more than eleven years at University A.

Of 74 respondents of University B who completed the questionnaires, 36.5 per cent (27) were from the field of education, making up the highest number of participants, 29.7 per cent (22) worked in the field of foreign languages, 20.3 per cent (15) worked in the fields of science and technology, and 13.5 per cent (10) worked in the field of economics. For the academic qualifications, 89.2 per cent (66) of respondents held a master's degrees, 5.4 per cent (4) had gained doctoral degrees, and 5.4 per cent (4) had a bachelor's degrees. In terms of academic title, a large majority 90.5 % (67) of respondents were lecturers, 9.5 per cent (7) were principal lecturers. Regarding their years of working experience, the most significant number (40.5 per cent (30) of respondents had been working at University B for six to ten years. 10.8 per cent (8) had less than five years of experience whereas about 43.2 per cent (32) had more than eleven years at University B.

### **5.6.2 Research instruments**

In this research, research instruments are document analyses, a questionnaire that contains 5-point Likert scales, and a semi-structured interview used for data collection. These will now be discussed in turn:

***Document analyses.*** Documents are classified as qualitative data, which consist of both public and archival records (Creswell, 2012, p. 223). Document analyses have been found to be a useful research tool with which to verify evidence obtained from other sources, for example, from in-depth interviews and questionnaires in this case (Robson, 2011, p. 349). By triangulating data drawing upon multiple of evidence (e.g. interviews, survey and document analysis in this study), I can corroborate findings across data sets, and thus reduce the impact of potential biases that can exist in a single study (Patton, 2002).

Most documents examined in this study are strategic plans, policy documents, yearbooks, institutional reports, websites and other official documents of those two universities and from the website of Ministry of Education and Training. In addition, I apply the interpretive stance to documentary data to “explore the meaning within the content” (Robson, 2011, p. 350).

*A questionnaire that contains 5-point Likert scales.* A questionnaire was developed to add more precision and comprehensiveness to the qualitative research in the same community. These data were used to grasp the perceptions and practices of the internationalisation process of the two public universities from the academics' perspectives. According to Gray (2014, p. 352), the questionnaire is ideal where the audience is relatively large and where the standardised questions are needed for a descriptive approach.

For this study, the questionnaires, the questions were constructed from previous studies, including Knight (2008), Nguyen (2011), Yun (2014), the International Association of Universities (IAU) 2003, 2005 (Knight, 2003a; Knight, 2005) and IAU 2010 (Beelen, 2011) with some adjustments to fit the context of those public universities in Vietnam. These adjustments were based on the institutional documents and comments of three knowledgeable people at the research sites.

The questionnaires were administered via a Google doc form-based cross-sectional survey (Creswell, 2012, p. 171), using a five-point Likert scale format. The Google Docs form was chosen due to its ability to distribute surveys easily and its ability to ensure participant confidentiality. The questionnaire template consists of eight central questions, in which each issue was a list of selected items supporting to each dominant theme of the study. In total, there are two parts: the first part of the questionnaire contained demographic information while the second part of the questionnaire included 68 items systematised into six dominant fields: importance, rationales, current practices, risks, challenges and future prioritised strategies for the upcoming years. The language used in the questionnaire was Vietnamese. The questionnaires took approximately 10 minutes to be completed.



***A Semi-structured interview.*** The study used a semi-structured interview format, also called a guided interview, which consists of a list of questions that I want to explore during each interview (Robson, 2011, p. 285). The main purpose of using the semi-structured interview for this study is to gain insights into participants' attitudes, feelings, and experiences and the issues towards internationalisation of higher education in order to generate internationalisation of higher education knowledge on a practical basis via empirical data (Denscombe, 2007, p. 176). Semi-structured interviews gave flexibility to the interviewees and interviewer and allowed interview guides to be modified over time to focus attention on areas of particular importance and relevance to a participant's experience and attitude, suitable for the goal of the research (Denscombe, 2007, p. 176). This type of interview ensures that the same information is pursued by each participant, but freedom exists to pursue new or unusual insights (King & Horrocks, 2010). According to Matthews & Ross (2010, p. 223), it is useful to have a set of clear and flexible interview questions in order to gain a better understanding or create a naturalistic and rich-information conversation. The interview guide in this research comprises six general groups of questions asking respondents about conceptual understandings, rationales, practices, risks, challenges and future priorities in relation to internationalisation process.

I conducted three forms of interviewing: email interview, telephone, and face-to-face, which are presented in turn:

Face-to-face interviews are considered as a popular approach in an educational research. This type of data collection is described by Denscombe (2007, p. 177) as a process in which the researchers ask questions to and records answers from only one participant in the study at a time. For this study, seven participants were conducted by this form in total.

Telephone interviews, as recommended by Creswell (2012, p. 219), are used in the situation where the participants may be geographically dispersed and unable to come to a central location for an interview. For this study, as I was in England while the research site is located in Vietnam, therefore telephone interviews were employed. Conducting a telephone interview is described by Creswell (2012, p.219) as a process of gathering data using the telephone and asking a small number of general questions. Creswell (2012, p. 219) also suggested that the researcher needs to use a telephone adaptor that plugs into both the phone and a tape recorder for a precise recording of the interview. For this study, I installed recorder software into my mobile and a digital voice recorder outside to make sure that no discussions were missed. In total, 16

interviewees were conducted via this form. The drawback of this interviewing is discussed in the methods limitation (section 5.10)

Email interviews are recommended by (Creswell, 2012, p. 219) as a useful research tool in collecting qualitative data quickly from a geographically dispersed group of people. According to Creswell's (2012, p. 219) description, email interviews consist of collecting data through interviews with individuals using computers and the internet. For this study, two participants provided their answers through emails instead of telephone interviews. Their detailed, rich text was very useful in contributing to answering the research questions.

### **5.6.3 The pilot study**

The concept of a pilot study is referred to a small- scale version of a full-scale study (Robson, 2011, p. 141). A pilot will help the researcher to refine the data collection plan regarding both the content of the data and the procedures to be followed (Yin, 2014, p. 96; Robson, 2011, p. 142). In principle, a pilot has functions to increase the reliability, validity, and practicality of the research instruments (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 402). Pilot studies are crucial as they can eliminate the error of the research instruments in the main research via this pre-testing stage (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001, p. 1). For this study, the pilot study was conducted to pre-test the questionnaire and interview protocols. Procedures planned for the main study were applied in the pilot to trial the research techniques and methods in practice (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010, p. 138). During the pilot study stage, one face-to-face interview with one lecturer was conducted at University A where the main study was about to take place. As advised by Blaxter et al. (2010, p. 138), after the interviews, a summary report was written.

For this pilot, there is no transcription as the participant did not allow me to record the interview. However, after this pilot interview, I adjusted some interview questions for more simplicity and clarity. During this period, I sought advice and suggestions from my supervisory team in revising the interview protocol more appropriate. Some interview questions were re-ordered or rewrote, from more general to specific ideas, enabling interviewees to be more comfortable to share their experiences and expertise (van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001, p. 2).

Regarding the questionnaire, after receiving the consent from three academic leaders in the fields of economics and foreign languages, I delivered the questionnaire and asked them to complete it in a week. The survey was pretested to ensure there was clarity on survey items and research focus. Such issues as wording, question order, and procedure were modified when

necessary. As a result, some questions of the survey were reworded to clarify the meaning. Then, they were rewritten to suit the Vietnamese formal written language style.

#### **5.6.4 Data collection procedure**

Data collection is an important part of the research. For this study, data were collected from interviews, questionnaires, and document sources. This aligns with Yin (2014, p. 119), who suggested that in a case study, it is essential to collect different kinds of data and use various sources in order to create a complete view of the issue that is studied. This data collection process was guided by the six specific research questions. The main idea is that multiple sources of evidence were used to confirm findings (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 60). In this research, a deductive and inductive approach are both brought into play in which predetermined categories and the categories emerged from the data were allowed to exist in parallel during the progress of the study (Robson, 2011, p. 164). The data collection process consisted of two phases: each phase aimed at achieving certain objectives, employed distinctive research methods, and took place at different times and places. The first phase of data collection involved documentation and the second phase involved interviews and a survey with the ultimate purpose of understanding internationalisation at two Vietnamese universities from the perspectives of their academics. The two phases of data collection were closely related and not necessarily mutually exclusive.

Initially, I approached the president or the rector of each university and asked for permission to access the research site, explaining the rationale for the research, anticipated outcomes and what they were used for. The president or the rector of these two universities was approached by me in an independent capacity where I introduced myself as a researcher and not in any other role. After gaining permission, I began visiting the research sites and gathered documents.

I met staff working in each university's Research and International Cooperation department and collected official documents related to internationalised programmes of those two institutions. Those official documents were useful in providing the historical context of internationalisation of higher education at those two case-study universities.

#### ***Qualitative data collection.***

**Case One- University A.** The selection of research participants was based on purposive and snowballing methods. Interview participants were recruited in two ways. The first group of

interview participants were recruited from the suggestions of my professors of my previous postgraduate course. The second group was recruited via the suggestion of the previous interviewees. The process of participant selection continued until a saturation point was reached; that is when responses were repeated, and more interviews did not lead to any further new information (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 55). In total, 15 key members of this university, who are mainly institutional leaders and managers and have knowledge and experiences of institutional internationalisation activities, were interviewed during the data collection period (1 face to face, 2 by email, and 12 by telephone). Most of the telephone interviews were administered depending on participants' convenient time and places.

**Case Two- University B.** Interviews were conducted with Heads or Vice Heads of various functional and academic departments. Of the 10 individual interviews completed, six were conducted through face-to-face, and four via telephone interviews from December 2015 to July 2016. Each interview lasted between 30 minutes to 60 minutes. I conducted 25 in total, taking approximately 969.6 minutes. The interviews yielded 300 transcript pages. During each interview, I explored the issue under investigation through interactive conversations with the assistance of the interview guide, allowing the participants to freely express their opinions thoroughly and profoundly. Interview questions were sent to participants in advance and they were well aware that the interviews were semi-structured. Participants were also informed of the aims and objectives of the research before deciding whether to participate in the research. The participants also received a consent form that they were required to read and sign before the interviews were conducted. All the interviews were recorded with the interviewees' permission. However, two interview participants chose to complete their interview responses via emails.

The selection of extracts from interview transcript was determined by the research aims and research questions. Some extracts of interview transcript were returned to participants for clarification. Those selected extracts were also translated into English and they were used as essential quotes in the findings and discussion chapters. Every attempt was made to ensure that all data related to the research aims and questions of the study were presented and the findings were not distorted.

***Quantitative data collection.*** A questionnaire was administered between the beginning of December 2015 and July 2016 through both paper and online forms. The survey collection stage started in December 2015, when the university examination period was about to take place and therefore, the majority of the lecturers were absent. I had to change the initial intended administration process of handing to each lecturer at selected departments to distribute an online form from England.

Purposive sampling was employed to identify survey respondents so that diverse demographic characteristics including disciplinary and organisational lines and status were guaranteed in the research sample. In total, 263 valid responses were received, representing a return rate of 78.7% of University A (240 were distributed) and 60.8% of University B (120 were distributed). Of the 263 questionnaire respondents, 189 belongs to University A, and 74 belongs to University B.

Both types of data collection ended in July 2016. At this point, I returned to examine the web pages of the universities to see if any new policies or activities concerning internationalisation of higher education were planned or had been implemented. More documents were added to the analysis at this point. The written notes and audio records of interviews were stored in a safe and secure place. The obtained information was kept confidential, and the data was not shared without permission of the interviewees. In presenting and discussing results and findings, care was taken to ensure that responses were anonymised.

## **5.7 Data Analysis**

### **5.7.1 Analysis of qualitative data**

For this study, thematic analysis was chosen for interpreting the meanings of collected data (Huberman & Miles, 1994; Creswell, 2012; Saldaña, 2016; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Thematic analysis is defined as a method of “identifying themes and patterns of meaning across a dataset in relation to a research question” (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 174). This is “a process of segmentation, categorisation, and relinking of aspects of the data prior to final interpretation” (Grbich, 2007, p. 16, as cited in Matthews & Ross, 2010, p. 373). For this study, the procedure for data analysis was as follows: first, organising the data; then, transcribing the interviews; third, analysing the transcripts manually; fourth, exploring the general sense (Matthews & Ross, 2010, p. 373); fifth, coding (Saldaña, 2016, pp. 9-14); sixth, developing themes (Saldaña, 2016, pp. 9-14); then categorising themes; and finally, comparing them with existing theoretical

frameworks (Creswell, 2012, p. 237). The findings were then linked to the results of the quantitative data analysis.

In ensuring anonymity, I used pseudonyms to identify interviewees – for example, AE1(University A, Department of Economics, and the first interview). These codes were set up according to the following rules: The first letter indicates the name of the University, the second letter stands for the name of the faculty and the number indicates the order of the interviews conducted in these institutions. The whole process of data analysis was carried out manually.

Further, during the data analysis process, two important issues were paid carefully: transcription and translation. In transcribing precisely, I listened to the audio scripts several times. When missing information or vague ideas were encountered, for example, problems related to recognising correct spoken words during the transcribing process, I sent follow-up emails to participants to ask them for clarification in order to ensure that the interpretations of the data were what the interviewees meant.

In dealing with the translation of responses or texts from Vietnamese into English, the meanings were always taken into account. According to Pryor & Crossouard (2010), “texts are dialogic, responsive and referential to each other” (p. 271) and Temple and Young (2004) noted, “there is no single correct translation of a text” (p. 165). Translation is not a language matter of synonym, syntax and local colour (Spivak, 1992, p. 182). According to Temple & Young (2004, p. 165), it is pointless to look for the meaning of a text within the confines of the written page given to the researcher by a translator. Simon (1996, as cited in Temple & Young, 2004, p. 165) also argued:

The solutions to many of the translator’s dilemmas are not to be found in dictionaries, but rather in an understanding of the way language is tied to local realities, to literary forms...Translators must constantly make decisions about the cultural meanings which language carries... (pp. 137-138).

Following all of these suggestions above, I decided that all the collected data were coded directly in Vietnamese language in order to retain the original meanings of the dataset. Then, I read and reread all of the datasets in an attempt to select the significant information relevant to the research objectives. Those data were also selected for translation into English and they were presented as essential quotes in the findings and discussion chapters. As a researcher and translator from the same background with the research participants, what the speakers said and meant were possible to understand. Some quotes were sent back to the participants for

clarification. This ensured that the participants' responses and their meanings were appropriately conveyed in English.

### **5.7.2 Analysis of quantitative data**

According to Howitt & Cramer (2014, p. 3), the appropriate statistical analysis for data depends on the particular type of research design. In their study, there two main types of statistical techniques: descriptive and inferential statistics (Howitt & Cramer, 2014, p. 9). Descriptive statistics are used for the research design that is exploratory in nature (e.g., identifying the form and nature of what exists). However, if a research study is explanatory in nature (e.g., examining the reasons for, or causes of what exists), inferential statistical methods are used on the analysis (Howitt & Cramer, 2014, p. 9).

As this study seeks to explore how the internationalisation of higher education has been interpreted and implemented in the Vietnamese context through the lens of academics, therefore, descriptive statistical methods are applied on the analysis. According to Beins (2012, p. 61), the most common way of making a large amount of data comprehensible is the mean and the standard deviation. The technical term mean is used for the score obtained by adding all the numbers and dividing by the number of scores that are added. The term standard deviation is a measure of the dispersion of the scores around the mean (Matthews & Ross, 2010, p. 354). These two statistics provide the reader a sense of the typical score (measures of central tendency) and the spread of other scores around the average (measures of variability or dispersion). In addition, *t*-tests and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to examine whether differences between groups were statistically significant or to analyse the relations among the numbers. The Pearson correlation coefficient was performed to measure the relationship between international experiences of the academics and internationalisation strategies and activities in practice at these case-study universities. In general, these statistics help me to put measurements in context and to provide the cogency of the argument. The process of quantitative analysis, in Creswell's opinion, involves four interrelated steps (2012, p. 175).

At the first phase, data preparation for analysis involves determining how to assign numeric scores to the data, the types of scores, selecting a statistical programme, inputting the data into a programme, and then cleaning up the database for analysis. For this study, the Likert system with a five-point scale was employed for assigning the scores of the data. Computer-assisted data software, called SPSS (The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software

was used for quantitative data analysis. When the period of data collection completed, all raw data from excel file was imported into the Data Analysis and Statistical Software programme (SPSS). After entering all questionnaire data collected from respondents into SPSS, the process of cleaning the data was carried out, which is described by Creswell (2012, p. 181) as the process of inspecting the data that are outside the accepted range.

At the second step, a descriptive analysis of the data, which is recommended by Creswell, 2012, p. 182) was applied, including reporting measures of central tendency and variation. With the purpose of describing trends in the data to every single variable or question on the instrument (e.g., How would you evaluate those internationalisation activities and programmes being implemented at your institution?), descriptive statistics were applied. Descriptive statistics, according to Creswell (2012, p. 182), are used to indicate or summarise the overall trends or tendencies in the data (mean), and the spread of scores (standard deviation and standard errors). This measure also provides an understanding of how different scores might be and provides insight into where one score stands in comparison with others.

The next step is to report the results that are found using tables, figures, and a discussion of the key findings. For this study, all quantitative results were summarised and displayed in tables. Bar charts were used for portraying variables and their relationships.

The final stage consists of summarising the results, comparing the results with past literature and theories.

Following this procedure, the data of this study was presented regarding the mean (M), standard deviation (SD), and standard error (SE) to provide detailed statistical information related to each item. The findings of the research study were analysed in association with the existing literature and previous studies. The themes were presented in particular order, moving from the rationales to practices, and the risk, challenges, finally the priorities for the coming years.

Overall, I employed a concurrent data analysis procedure for this study, which is commonly used in mixed methods research (Creswell, 2009, 2014). In particular, I analysed the qualitative and quantitative data concurrently but separately. I then converged the two separate data sets in one overall interpretation, in which the quantitative results were related to the qualitative findings (Creswell & Clark, 2011, pp. 215-221). The results were then discussed and



analysed in association with theoretical frameworks on internationalisation developed from previous studies.

## **5.8 Reliability and Validity of the Data**

Yin (2014, p. 45) identifies relevant criteria that are associated with the quality of social research data such as credibility, dependability and authenticity, trustworthiness, validity, reliability, and transferability (also see Creswell, 2009; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002). The common goal of those terms is to increase the quality of research and to “describe and explain phenomena as accurately and completely as possible so that their descriptions and explanations correspond as closely as possible to the way the world is and actually operates” (Patton, 2002, p.546). Different criteria or tests have been developed and used to judge the quality of empirical social research depending on the philosophical underpinnings, theoretical orientations, and purposes of the study (Patton, 2002). In this research study, two tests, namely, validity and reliability (Yin, 2009, 2014) are emphasised.

### **5.8.1 Validity**

According to Cohen et al. (2011, p. 179), the term validity is understood in the sense that if a piece of research is invalid, then it is worthless. Validity concerns accuracy, in which the findings must describe accurately the phenomena being researched. The data collected for this study is based on several different information sources to improve construct validity. The triangulation of data including a questionnaire survey, individual interviews, and document analysis would increase the level of accuracy of the findings. Documentation evidence was gathered from inside the case study institutions as well as from newspapers and different publicly official sources in the field of higher education internationalisation. Quantitative data were collected and constructed to also base the analyses on numbers and percentages.

Furthermore, qualitative data from interviews with differing viewpoints and rival explanations on the internationalisation process have been discussed in the study. Thus, data generated from the survey, interviews, and documents would limit biases. Furthermore, the research instruments including questionnaire and interview guide are based on existing literature and studies conducted by known scholars in the field of internationalisation of higher education, thus warranting the validity of the research instruments used in the research study.

Moreover, the research followed the recommendation of Robson (2011, pp. 56-59) in which three of six techniques were applied to ensure credibility: (i) prolonged engagement, (ii)

persistent observations, and (iii) member checks. Regarding prolonged engagement, I spent five months in the research site to learn the context of each institutional case and the reality of internationalisation activities in each university. People there were helpful in sharing or providing information related to internationalisation policies and practices. Therefore, I had an adequate understanding of the reality of internationalisation in each institution. This helped me to have a background understanding in analysing data for the study.

Regarding persistent observation, I collected national and institutional internationalisation-related strategy and policy documents to study. In addition, the majority of participants are academic leaders, who had a profound understanding about their institution's internationalisation context. This helped me to have a comprehensive overview of each institutional case. Regarding member checks, I sent the transcripts back to the interview participants to check whether the information provided through recorded interviews was accurately transcribed and translated. These quotes were used in the findings and discussion chapter of the research.

### **5.8.2 Reliability**

According to Cohen et al. (2011, p. 199), reliability is a measurement concern associated with the credibility of research findings or interpretations of research findings. Reliability is concerned with the likelihood of measurement producing the same results within repeated trials (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 199). Reliability is ultimately concerned with establishing consistency within repeated measures. In other words, the term reliability is used concerning the likelihood of another researcher acquiring similar data and developing the same analytic description of the data collected (Bryman, 2012, p. 46).

This study enhanced the reliability of the measures in several ways. First, I provided consistent measurement of the concepts under investigation (Bryman, 2012, p. 47). In other words, each respondent completed an identical survey for data collection, which guarantees the similar experiences of respondents regarding the completion of survey items. Second, survey items were constructed basing on theoretical propositions that were developed from the review of the literature. In essence, the literature review served as a guide for a similar data collection plan and analysis for selected universities. Third, the reliability of survey questions was confirmed by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha measurement. Cronbach's alpha is considered as a measure of scale reliability and was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011, p. 53). The term Cronbach's alpha is defined as a measurement of internal

consistency, in which how a set of items are closely related to a group (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011, p. 53). Theoretically speaking, alpha may range in value from 0.0 to 1.0 (DeVellis, 1991, p. 85). According to DeVellis's (1991, p. 85) recommendation, reliability coefficients around .70 are acceptable; between .70 and .80 is respectable; values around .80 are very good; and coefficients above .90 may indicate the need to reduce the number of scale items.

**Table 5.5 Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.867	78

As noted in Table 5.5, the alpha coefficient for the seventy-eight items is .867, which suggests that the questions have relatively high internal consistency, a very good reliable or credible research finding.

### **5.9 Ethical Considerations**

This study obtained a favourable, ethical approval of the Ethics Committee with the review number 14/15:66. Therefore, all steps carried out in the investigation following the approval procedure, which will be discussed in turn:

Regarding the research site (Creswell, 2012), as part of the ethical clearance procedure, I explained to the Rector of the University, the gatekeeper, the topic of the study, the scale, the potential participants, the time and duration of the study. The Rector permitted to conduct the research. In respect to ethical concerns of confidentiality of the research sites, the name 'University A' and 'University B' have been used to indicate for the two research sites.

Furthermore, concerning the potential participants, in line with ethical approval procedure, the participants were fully informed of the purpose, procedures, risks, benefits, anonymity and confidentiality (Robson, 2011, p. 207). The consent form also informed them about their rights to participate and to withdraw from the research at any time, and that withdrawal would have no negative consequences for them (Robson, 2011, p. 202). Though the topics for discussion in the interview were not sensitive or emotionally laden (Punch, 2014, p. 48), I was fully aware of the threats of over disclosure of personal information. The participants were numbered, and the numbers were used during the interviews, data analysis and presented to guarantee the confidentiality of the interviewees.

Any impact on participants was minimised by asking open-ended questions and in a sharing manner, not to influence their perspective and experiences of the topics for the interview ((Matthews & Ross, 2010, p. 78). Member checks were applied after transcribing and translating the interview data to make sure the collected information matched what the participants wanted to share. In the reporting period, data were reported honestly without changing or altering the findings. This showed respect both to the data reported as professional ethics and to those who read and use the findings (Matthews & Ross, 2010, p. 79).

In terms of data retention and data security, all interviewees' personal details and interview transcripts will be retained for three years. All data will be stored in a locked facility, accessible to me only (all files require the researcher's password to open and will be kept on her personal computer). All data collected will be stored in the care to protect the confidentiality of participants and institutions and will be destroyed three years after the end of the research.

#### **5.10 Limitations of the Data**

Like all research projects, this study encountered two prominent research problems. First, due to the geographical issue, I conducted two forms of questionnaire distribution and three forms of interviewing: email interview, telephone, and face-to-face, which might create some bias. To limit that issue, I also tested two people with interviews (one used both forms the email and telephone and another used both forms the face to face and telephone and five people with survey. As a result, the interview data collected from emails and telephone was richer than from the face-to-face interviews, which aligns with Bryman (2012, p. 214). According to Bryman (2012, p. 214), in personal interviews, respondents' replies are sometimes affected by characteristics of the interviewer, which implies that the interviewees may reply in ways they feel will be deemed desirable by interviewers. The remoteness of the interviewer in telephone interviewing removes this potential source of bias to a significant extent.

Another limitation associated with telephone interviewing such as an unreliable way of collecting information from individuals because answers may be shorter and the whole interview procedure tends to proceed more briskly or the sample may be inadequately representative. However, according to Bryman (2012, p. 215), telephone interviews may be successful when essential components are guaranteed such as an appropriate interviewee and the depth and detail information obtained through such discussions (Bryman, 2012, p. 215). These elements were guaranteed as I did not find any difficulties in asking the appropriateness of interviewees. The

majority of interviewees were the Head or Deputy Head of the academic faculties or functional departments; therefore, their roles place them in a position likely to provide rich sources of information on how internationalisation is perceived and implemented.

In addition, the questionnaire data derived from the hard copy and online distributions did not differ greatly as the majority of questions were designed according to 5-point Likert scales. According to Bryman (2012, p. 234), those two forms of distribution are still known as self-completion questionnaires and they do not affect the results. Although I did not use observations as a source of evidence, I had wide access to documentary and statistical evidence from public documentation, which is considered as one of useful data collection methods (Matthews & Ross, 2010, p. 277; Robson, 2011, p. 348). These sources of evidence gave detailed answers to questions on the internationalisation process in those two case studies. For example, the strategy document described well the role of internationalisation and the aspirations each university has for internationalisation. In addition, the messages of the Presidents of the universities expressed very clearly the current and future institutional visions on internationalisation. Therefore, I am confident to believe that the information collected through documentary analysis was more valuable than that which observations would have provided.

## **Chapter 6. Meaning, Importance and Rationales of Internationalisation at the Two Higher Education Institutions**

This chapter illustrates a detailed exploration of the internationalisation process with its multiple facets at two particular universities in Vietnam. The key findings and evidence emerging from the data collection are presented as follows:

Chapter six includes two main sections of analysis: the first section explores the meanings of internationalisation, drawing on a number of conceptual understandings from the academics' perspectives at two Vietnamese universities. This section answers the first question "How do academics at two universities in Vietnam perceive the concept of internationalisation of higher education?". The second section focuses on the purpose or goals of pursuing internationalisation at these two case-study universities. This part mainly explores the institutional rationales for facilitating internationalisation via answering the question "What are the perceived institutional rationales for internationalisation at Vietnamese universities?"

Chapter seven investigates current internationalisation strategies undertaking at these two cases in Vietnam. This chapter answers the third question, "How internationalisation strategies/programmes are being implemented at Vietnamese universities?" It analyses the operational process of the organisational and programme strategies for internationalisation at these two universities in Vietnam.

Chapter eight involves three particular sections. The first section explores a number of risks associated with promoting internationalisation. It gives insights to answer the fourth question "What are the institutional risks associated with the promotion of internationalisation?" The second section identifies the barriers inhibiting the effectiveness of internationalisation implementation at these two case-study universities. It provides information for answering the question "What are the obstacles faced by Vietnamese universities in implementing internationalisation?" The final section is about the essential future directions to internationalisation in both short and long-term goals at these two universities. It answers the question "Which aspects of internationalisation strategy should be prioritised in the future?"

In addressing all the research questions, this study draws on the theoretical and conceptual frameworks synthesised from the review of internationalisation of higher education literature presented in chapter 2. The argument for exploring the conceptual understandings and practices of internationalisation in Vietnamese universities, which is bound by different socio-political and cultural contexts from those of developed nations, is that the issue has been under-studied and

inadequately addressed in the literature. Therefore, this investigation has potential to make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge on how this fits into a wider picture of internationalisation.

### **6.1. Perceived Meaning of Internationalisation of Higher Education**

The internationalisation of higher education in practice is affected by the perceptions of institutional stakeholders. This is because, according to Piaget (1953), human action is guided by their worldviews, being shaped and reshaped by their experiences throughout their lives. According to Knight (1997, p. 5), “internationalisation means different things to different people, and as a result, there is a great diversity of interpretations attributed to the concept.”

This section aims to address the research question: How do academics at two universities in Vietnam perceive the concept of internationalisation of higher education? Each interviewee was initially asked a general question of what internationalisation of higher education means to them. After twenty-five interviews completed and analysed, the main significant features of the meaning of internationalisation emerged. Exploring academics’ perspectives on the internationalisation of higher education provides the impetus for opening hidden factors behind the current practice of the internationalisation of higher education at Vietnamese HEIs. It is of note that internationalisation of higher education is still a new concept in Vietnam and University A. People may know more about the specific contents of the process but not necessarily the term itself (Nguyen, 2011, p. 159).

#### **6.1.1 Perceived meaning of internationalisation of higher education at University A**

Internationalisation has been included in the strategic goals and vision statement of University A (University Website, 2015). This finding aligns with Arabkheradmand, Shabani, Zand-Moghadam, Bahrami, Derakhshesh and Golkhandan’s (2015, p. 3), who claim that the factor to initiate an international tendency in educational institutions is having a global vision in education and subsequently applying this insight to every aspect of education. Through empirical investigation, the findings sketched out intersecting and nuanced dimensions of the respondents’ understanding of the internationalisation of higher education. Consequently, their understandings of internationalisation fall into two dominant approaches acknowledged by a majority of literature: the activity approach and rational approach (Knight, 2004, p. 19; Knight & de Wit, 1995, pp. 16-17).

In the activity approach, the majority of the participants' view internationalisation of higher education as components, activities, procedures or strategies of internationalisation of their institution. This finding supports the existing literature, which attributes internationalisation of higher education to a small part of internationalisation (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p.15).

In the rational approach, the respondents view internationalisation of higher education as ultimate purposes or rationales for facilitating international activities or programmes. As suggested by Zha (2003, p. 250), these two approaches in defining internationalisation supplement rather than exclude each other. Although neither way of viewing internationalisation of higher education as a comprehensive completed definition of the term, these findings signal a very important message to the institutional stakeholders, the key people: What they should do and what the importance of internationalisation of higher education is to the existence and development of their higher education institution.

The major themes that emerged from the data were around two topics:

***Perception 1: The concept of internationalisation is viewed as a wide range of international policies and programmes that need to be promoted***

Internationalisation of higher education is viewed as diversified forms of the international dimension that need to be integrated into the primary functions of the university. These tangible and visible features of university internationalisation are known as international cooperative programmes and activities put in place.

The first tendency of understandings of internationalisation of higher education focuses on the internationalisation of a curriculum. Participants pertaining to this view considered internationalisation of higher education as internationalising a curriculum in two ways: first, the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the traditional curriculum, or second, an adoption of a whole package of joint degree-level programmes from prestigious foreign universities.

In the first group, for example, one interview participant defined internationalisation as:

OK! Internationalisation of higher education is to build up an internationalised curriculum, course or an international program ... right ... it's ...for meeting the needs of international students, not just for students across our country only. Besides, all the other services of the University for those courses must be standardised and supported, from infrastructure, academic staff, student activities, to teaching and learning process management etc. (Interview 13- AF2).



In this quotation, we can see that the concept of internationalisation is specifically viewed as having an internationalised curriculum for all students, not domestic one only. In addition, in order to operate an internationalised curriculum, all other related activities need to meet the international standard as well. This high attention to an internationalised curriculum, program or course in perceiving ‘internationalisation of higher education’ is in line with the literature (de Wit, 2011, p. 243). According to the literature, internationalisation of the curriculum is the main component or the backbone of institutional internationalisation (Khorsandi, 2014). In other words, it suggested that internationalisation of academic programmes plays a significant role in the progressing effort to internationalise the university.

Similarly, another interviewee expressed:

In my view, that is, firstly, a process of approaching general advanced teaching methods. Secondly, the academic programmes have continuously been modified and updated to be consistent with practical reality. Thirdly, using reference materials and course books of the prestigious universities worldwide to update the curriculum and its syllabuses following the current internationalisation criteria and trends (Interview 8 – ASc1).

Internationalisation of higher education here is viewed as incorporating an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the traditional programmes. This finding aligns with Elkin et al. (2008, p. 240), who suggest ways to internationalise programmes, which may include overseas ideas in the programmes for domestic students or a melding of different cultural ideas, or even an adaptation of international standards. As can be seen from this quotation, a number of things were suggested to add on the current academic programmes such as updating modern teaching methods, following international curriculum standards, importing textbooks, or external reference materials, etc. This view corresponds to the work of Zimitat (2008, as cited in Zou, 2017), who stresses that internationalising the curriculum is not just about content; it also requires changes in pedagogy.

In the second group, the language of ‘internationalisation of higher education’ is captured in the sense of ‘types of affiliated programmes of study’. For example, one Dean stated, “Internationalisation of higher education is about a collaborative program among foreign universities in providing joint degree programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate levels” (Interview 21 – AS1). In this perception, the concept of internationalisation of higher education

tends not only to focus on the diversity of the affiliated academic programmes in various majors and disciplines but also at both levels: undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

In addition, internationalisation of higher education is viewed as the way the degrees are conferred or qualifications are granted (Leask, 2013, p. 103). For example, one interview participant defined:

Internationalisation of higher education has been expressed in the sense of organising and awarding degrees through three methods. Firstly, foreign universities run their whole courses or programmes of study in Vietnam, and the degrees are awarded by them also. Secondly, two universities will jointly sign for a degree. Thirdly, Vietnamese side will award the degree, but during the learning process, Vietnamese party also invites some lecturers or professors of the foreign partners to co-teach in some subjects (Interview 9-AEd1).

In this understanding, the participant detailed various ways of collaboratively awarded degrees between Vietnamese universities and their foreign partners. Internationalisation of higher education here is understood as an adoption of a whole package of joint academic programmes from prestigious foreign universities. This distinction is defined by Leask (2013, pp. 105-106) as the product of an international curriculum, rather than the internationalised process of the curriculum, which focuses on the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum.

Generally, in this perspective, internationalisation of higher education is viewed as a range of characteristics of an international curriculum or various ways of internationalising the curriculum, which reflects the tendency to consider curriculum internationalisation as an essential component of university internationalisation strategies (Leask, 2013, p. 103). According to De Wit (2002, p. 14), people define or use internationalisation of higher education in how this strategy best suits their purpose. Therefore, understanding the concept of internationalisation in association with curriculum development and course design suggests that internationalising the curriculum is an urgent demand in the internationalisation policies and strategies (Luxon & Peel, 2009, p. 54).

Second, internationalisation of higher education is viewed as the mobility of institutional stakeholders. In this dimension, one participant considered internationalisation as the mobility of the domestic students and staff:

Internationalisation of higher education is reflected in the way that students can go to study overseas in their final year after completing their initial phase within two or three years in Vietnam... (Interview 9–AEd1).

Or, other participants equated internationalisation of higher education as a welcoming place for international students. This was evident in the response of one academic leader:

Internationalisation of higher education means to integrate into the educational system of other countries. Our university will become a place where international students can come to study regardless of their countries of origin. (Interview 14- AS1).

In this quotation, the participant understood internationalisation of higher education in terms of having international students in the university campus, which correspond the literature (Teichler, 2004, p. 7; Robson, 2011, p. 619) in emphasising the important roles of international students to the university's development. This perception emphasised not only increasing the number of international students but also the scope and scale, not limited to a specific region, continent, but very broad, at the global level.

Third, internationalisation of higher education is understood as the diversity of collaborative inter-institutional programmes in all functions of higher education. For example, one academic leader expressed their understanding based on their experiences:

Internationalisation of higher education is about co-supervising Ph.D. students, publishing international articles or scientific research results, organizing joint academic activities, exchanging faculty staff and students (Interview 21–AS1).

In this quotation, internationalisation of higher education is considered as a wide range of programmes that contain international features, ranging from the simplest activities such as cultural exchange programmes for students and staff to the highest level regarding the university's research mission: co-supervising doctoral students, co-doing international research projects, and co-publishing latest scientific results or articles in prestigious international journals. The finding aligns with the statement of de Haan, who stresses that “the meaning of internationalisation includes everything that relates to international” (2014, p. 241).

In general, in this regard, internationalisation of higher education is interpreted as a wide range of international activities or specific programmes touching all the tripartite missions of the university, namely teaching, research, and services. This result is in alignment with the view of

Yang (2002, p. 82), who emphasises that the meaning of internationalisation covers different things, includes different dimensions, with various stresses at different levels of higher education. However, according to De Wit (2002, p. 114), it is not helpful for internationalisation to become a catch-all phrase for everything and anything international.

***Perception 2: internationalisation of higher education is regarded as the ability of the university to be recognised at the regional and international scale.*** Internationalisation of higher education is viewed as a means to achieve a wider goal.

First, the respondents viewed internationalisation of higher education as the capacity of the university to be known worldwide. In this dimension, they believe internationalisation would help their university, for example, to be recognised globally.

Internationalisation is the ability to gain the recognition from other universities in the region and the world. This recognition is shown in the university's ranking order. Therefore, if the universities would like to have a high-ranking position, they must comply with international criteria for research and teaching. For example, internationalisation of higher education is to gain the recognition in academic programmes such as the recognition of qualifications or educational quality for transfer or further study overseas (Interview 7-AEd2).

In this quotation, the respondent viewed internationalisation as the outcomes or the goals in pursuing internationalisation instead of its means (De Haan, 2014, p. 242). In particular, internationalising higher education here is about gaining an acceptance or recognition from the world's higher education systems. In this understanding, internationalisation of higher education is defined in terms of achieving high quality in teaching, learning and research, e.g. having compatible degree programmes with prestigious universities worldwide. In their belief, the meaning of internationalisation of higher education is associated with the driver or motivation behind the scene.

Another participant defined internationalisation as something that makes the university become more internationalised as he stated:

Internationalisation of higher education is to make my university to become international regarding academic programmes, teaching objectives, learning products ... Internationalisation transforms our institution into an international one, but it is understood as its capacity to pursue regional and international integration (Interview 4-AEd1).

In this perception, the participant viewed internationalisation of higher education as how the university desires to integrate into the international context. The principle lying at the heart of this perception is the belief that internationalisation would make the university become more internationalised or be recognised internationally. It is of note that this participant views internationalisation of higher education as not just about ‘a number of things’ to become more internationalised, but about a change process from a national higher education institution into an international one. In this participant’s clarification, there should be more programmes to be internationalised, e.g. increasing the number of joint academic programmes, more research collaboration and exchanges between the university and its foreign partners. This finding aligns with Söderqvist (2002), who defines internationalisation of higher education as “a change process from a national higher education institution to an international one, leading to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to achieve the desired competencies” (p. 29). In addition, their understanding concurs with the University’s strategic policies “the university will become a leading university in Southeast Asia” (University A’s annual report, 2016).

Further, internationalisation is viewed as helping each other for a mutual benefit and sustainable development. For example, one interview participant defined:

Internationalisation is the international collaboration in the fields of teaching and research between countries. It must bring mutual benefits not only for the developing countries but also for the developed nations. In other words, all parties involved in this process should share a genuine equality to achieve mutually beneficial and reciprocal target (Interview 1–AEc1).

In this response, internationalisation is seen to be virtually synonymous with international cooperation based on a mutual benefit of both sides. In participants’ belief, internationalisation is not only about the cooperation and exchanges in learning, teaching and research, but also covers a continuous reciprocal support, a long-term goal commitment between the parties involved. Participants adhering to this view believed that internationalisation is not understood as any random international cooperative events or programmes, but this strategy must be developed at a broad and deep scale between partner institutions for survival and development together. This view aligns with the literature in the sense that the international dimension of higher education should be based on sharing, solidarity, and equality among partners (WCHE, 1998, p. 2, as cited in Morosini, Corte & Guilherme, 2017, p. 96). In a similar vein, another interviewee defined:

Internationalisation of higher education is a process in which all parties involved should share genuine equality to achieve mutually beneficial and reciprocal target (Interview 1–AEc1).

In addition, internationalisation is viewed as an irreversible trend of higher education development in the context of globalisation (Arabkheradmand et al., 2015, p. 2). For instance, one research participant stated:

In the coming time, internationalisation of education is necessary, as the economy now, if you want to grow, you want to compete, you have to integrate, and of course, that is international integration ... (Interview 5- AEd1).

In this quotation, internationalisation is recognised as the best strategy to cope with globalisation. This view apparently indicates that internationalisation determines the fate of an educational institution. It shapes the mission and the vision, and the core value and fulfils the necessary demand for the development of any institutions participating in this process. That is not surprising when the representative of the Rector Board of the case expressed:

International integration is something that the university has determined from the outset; we already have shaped own oriented mission, not only to become one of the top university of the country but also ranked highly in South East Asia (Interview 12-AEc1).

In this perspective, academic participants viewed internationalisation of higher education as the most crucial strategy towards achieving the desired development of University A as ‘one of the top universities in Vietnam’ and ‘ranked highly in the South East Asian university network.’

This view supports Harman et al. (2010), who emphasise that the scientific and technological advancement and the advent of information technology have intensified the need for Vietnam to work and collaborate with other countries in all fields. Internationalisation of higher education has become an indispensable policy to respond to the changing global context and challenges of the ever-growing interconnectedness. Participants here mainly understood internationalisation of higher education as helping the university to be modernized and developed in order to be recognised one of the best universities nationwide and worldwide (Arabkheradmand et al., 2015, p. 1).

In general, in this regard, participants viewed their understandings of the concept of internationalisation of higher education in association with achieving particular international goals or objectives, which stem from its contributions to the quality improvement in all areas.

The findings of this study align with the assumption of de Wit (2010), who emphasises internationalisation as a specific rationale.

### **6.1.2 Perceived meaning of internationalisation of higher education at University B**

In the same way as participants at University A, the participants from University B were asked to define internationalisation of higher education. According to the findings of this case, participants viewed internationalisation of higher education to be pluralistic, comprising two dominant understandings of internationalisation. The first defined internationalisation as a process of placing the University on the global stage and the second theorised internationalisation as reaching international standards.

*Perception 3: Internationalisation of higher education is understood as a process of placing the University on the global stage.* Making higher education more integrated into the global higher education sphere was discussed as a perspective of understanding internationalisation in this group of academic participants. Participants pertaining to this view considered internationalisation in association with the acknowledgment of the linkages between higher education institutions across the world. For example, one participant stated:

In my view, internationalisation is a two-way process, the Vietnamese university integrates into the global higher education, and the universities around the world set up a cooperative relationship with Vietnamese universities... (Interview 15-BEd1).

In this regard, internationalisation is understood as forming networks between Vietnam higher education and the world. The head of the Office of Scientific Research and International Cooperation clarified the two-way process of internationalisation more specifically as connecting Vietnam's educational practices with the world's higher education systems. According to his interpretation, currently, numerous foreign universities are offering international collaborations and operations in Vietnam (London, 2011, p. 37); therefore, the University can take that opportunity to have international relationship with the universities worldwide regardless any regions. This finding aligns with Marginson (2014, p. 16), who emphasises that internationalisation is about the connection, convergence, and integration between their inner, domestic world and the outsider. These interactions, corporations, and exchanges are facilitated via global systems of communications, information, knowledge (Marginson and van der Wende, 2007, p. 5).

Similarly, another interview participant defined:

I think the internationalisation of higher education is to open the door to the worldwide educational systems so that the universities in the world will establish international relationships with us. We will share with each other the educational services, scientific research results, or teaching experiences. All sides involved are helpful, creating a friendly mutual environment for development together (Interview 16- BSc1).

In this understanding, the internationalisation of higher education is viewed as joining into the world mainstream. In particular, the meaning of internationalisation implies that the development of international relations or international collaboration is necessary as it generates a shared interest, mutual aims in meeting the progress of society. This finding aligns with a number of previous studies, in which the process of internationalisation is not only to promote academic collaborations in research and teaching (Leask, 2013; Teekens, 2003) but also to contribute to the sustainable development for all involved parties (Trondal, 2010; De Vita & Case, 2003), which is essential in the era of scientific and technological advancement (Morosini et al., 2017, p. 96).

Furthermore, the idea of internationalisation of higher education is seen as a process of integrating internationally among universities in any parts of the world. For example, one expressed:

In my view, internationalisation of higher education is an integrating process of higher education into the global higher education sphere. Internationalisation of higher education is about integrating all the universities around the world regardless national boundaries or classification. That is how to help all educational systems worldwide to achieve the ultimate objectives of education: to meet the demand of the social development over the world (Interview 23-BEd1).

In this quote, participants touched on two primary aspects of internationalisation when they are asked to define the term: it is an international integrative process between countries and cultures and it is beneficial to all involved sides in meeting the demand of social development. It is apparent that this view appreciates the connection between the high-level expertise of graduates and socio-economic progress. This view aligns with Morosini et al. (2017, p. 96), who conclude that internationalisation of higher education has had positive impact on universities, and consequently on the wider society.



This belief is rooted from the fact that higher education cannot withdraw from the global environment since its effects are unavoidable (Altbach et al., 2010, p. 7). The local realities are affected by the impact of globalisation in all aspects as one academic participant concerned:

I see now we are living in a modern flat society, in which a globalisation process is happening in all fields, higher education is a part of the culture. Thus, higher education is also impacted by this global trend (Interview 23- BEd1).

According to this participant, internationalisation of higher education is considered as a crucial factor to bring innovation and modernisation to the economy and society. In their perceptions, the development of the university is linked to the country's economic and social development. The key idea stressed in this finding is the recognition of the essential missions of the universities and its internationalisation, which is considered as the cornerstone of nation-building, economic, social, and human development in this changing and interconnected world (Enders, 2004, p. 362; WCHE, 1998, p. 2, as cited in Morosini et al., 2017, p. 96). In fulfilling these functions, it requires higher education to be modern and innovative, and the best way to gain the transfer of theoretical and technological knowledge via networks and consortia (Morosini et al., 2017, p. 96). These sharing include the best practices, the latest scientific and technological achievement. Through this network participation, internationalisation of higher education helps to reform the academic quality of the institution to achieve the universal values. For example, some participants believed:

In my opinion, internationalisation of a university has become a global trend, to share best practices between countries in all fields (Interview 2-BSc1).

In this quotation, the internationalisation of the university is understood as a common and necessary trend to promote cross-border academic collaboration or sharing the best practices at all levels. This finding aligns with Renc-Roe & Roxå (2014, p. 130), who acknowledge the dynamics of academic work and practices in academic communities.

Generally, in these perceptions, the findings correspond to the acknowledgment of Knight and De Wit (1995):

The pursuit of knowledge in a modern world requires vast resources which are not all available in any one university, international cooperation between higher education institutions in many cases then becomes a necessity (p. 14).

The findings align with the suggestion of Jiang and Carpenter (2013) in the sense that the concept of internationalisation should lead to a reciprocal exchange of national culture and knowledge among the countries.

***Perception 4: Internationalisation of higher education is considered as reaching regional and international standards.*** In this perception, the common way of understanding internationalisation of higher education is to focus on the ultimate goals of achieving global standards. Internationalisation is interpreted as achieving the international standard for all the primary functions of the university. For example, one stated:

Internationalisation of higher education could be understood as an integrative process to comply with the international standards. It means that curricula, pedagogical methods, contents, facilities, staff, and students' capabilities are about to reach international standards. The university must be acknowledged as an accredited institution, which has the regional and international academic standard (Interview 3-BSc1).

According to the participants' belief, the prestige of a university is closely aligned with the high ranking position in the Vietnamese universities or the world' league table (Nguyen, Oliver, & Priddy, 2009). This position takes into account the essential components: the quality of academic programmes, physical infrastructure, teaching staff, and students, which lead to the recognised international quality of the university. More importantly, in the perceptions of the participants, internationalisation is regarded as the University's globally recognised qualifications and its successful graduates in meeting societal needs or requirements of employers.

Other participants show the agreement of understanding internationalisation, which emphasises achieving the international standard for all the primary functions of the university. More importantly, they not only mentioned internationalisation as the end but also portrayed this phenomenon as a means to achieve that end. Internationalisation is comprehended in both facets, a process of internationalising the university and international standard achievement as the ultimate target for that process.

Internationalisation is the process of integrating international elements into teaching, research, and services to achieve international standards, following international criteria or convention (Interview 8-BEd1).

In this understanding, internationalisation is seen a process of infusing the global dimension into all the functions of the university for educational advancement and highly qualified human resource development in meeting social desiderata, which is aligned with De Wit and Hunter (2015, p. 3).

Briefly, a series of in-depth interview data in this dimension present the fundamental meaning of internationalisation of higher education, which focuses on its process and its objectives. Due to the young age and a short historical development of the institution, the conceptual idea of internationalisation of higher education captured in the academics' perspectives in the manner of theory rather than a practical basis. This finding corresponds to the criticism of de Wit (2011), who highlights the mismatch between the conceptual definition and the reality. In his argument, the reality about internationalisation is less promising than its conceptual definitions. According to the academics interviewed, this phenomenon originally emerged due to the international integrative context of broader political and, socio-economic imperatives.

Therefore, internationalisation of higher education becomes an essential element for the existence and progression of the university. In their belief, it helps to reform their education and research products to reach the international criteria and especially in harmony with the global educational system. With its underlying meaning as joining the world, it is a belief that the internationalisation process will assist the university in its development and modernisation through adopting the western ideas and adapting to the South-eastern Asian environment. It values the contributions from all parts of the world, a process of reciprocated betterment.

### **6.1.3 Discussion section**

In this section, the similarities and differences in participants' perceptions at these two cases are highlighted.

In general, internationalisation of higher education is captured by the academics at both University A and University B as a means to achieve a wider goal, which supports the view of de Wit (2011, p. 243). In this tendency, the significant focus of their interpretation manifests in the sense that internationalisation is a driving motive for change and innovation in higher education. It is a transformation process to enhance the quality of teaching, learning, and research (Söderqvist, 2002, p. 29). Although there is a similarity between these two case universities regarding the rationale embedded in the concept, the participants of each case university

justification for their understanding of internationalisation is distinctive due to their respective institutions' outlook, values, and beliefs (Postiglione, 2011, p. 790). University A expects to become "a leading university in South East Asia" while University B strives to be "a major regional university of the Central area and Western Highlands of Vietnam" (University websites of A & B, 2015). Therefore, when considering the participants at University B's aspiration for 'reaching international standard' within their real context, it reveals the fact that their concerns are all about avoiding to be lagging behind. However, University A, a regional university with a top-five ranking position in Vietnamese league tables, has been exposing itself to the outside world through collaboration with many prestigious foreign universities. Therefore, for the participants of University A, they hope to reach a leading place not only in the Vietnamese league table but also in the South East Asia region or further: to become a research university with international status and recognition.

Further, the concept of internationalisation is also viewed differently between academics of University A and B. The participants at University A explained their understanding on internationalisation of higher education, which mainly focuses on strategic programmes, or activities of internationalisation. Typically, in the perceptions of the academic participants of University A, internationalisation is interpreted in association with an endless list of international activities that the University should promote such as internationalisation of the curriculum, joint degree programmes, academic mobility for students and staff, international students, international research collaboration and so on, which is classified as an activity approach (Zha, 2003, p. 250; Knight, 1997, p. 6; Knight, 2004, p. 19). The finding supports the literature in the sense that internationalisation is comprehended as categories or types of activities (Yang, 2002, p. 82). This finding is consistent with the definition of Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley (2010), in which "internationalisation is defined as the variety of policies and programmes that universities and governments implement to respond to globalisation" (p. 7).

According to the viewpoint of the University B's participants, the conceptualisation of internationalisation is interpreted as an integration of the university's activities into the global education sphere. However, their interpretation is less tied to any source of their real context. Therefore, their understanding and interpretation become more abstract, far-reaching ambition (Lewis, 2007). This idea aligns with Arabkheradmand, Shabani, Zand-Moghadam, Bahrami, Derakhshesh, & Golkhandan (2015, p. 3) in the sense that the initial factor for an international

tendency in any educational institutions is to have a global vision and subsequently applying this insight into every aspect of educational functions.

Thus, the main difference between academic participants at University A and University B in perceiving the concept of internationalisation, is between idealistic definition (University B) and pragmatic definition or operational meanings based on practice (University A) (Lewis, 2007). This result supports the work of Callan (2000, p. 16), who claims that the explanations of internationalisation do not develop in a vacuum, but are affected by the organisation and consciousness of professional practice.

Looking through all the dataset, it is unfeasible in any case that the academic participants defined internationalisation as a pure description of an internationalised activity or programme or only the purpose of internationalisation but a combination of the two. In such a combination, their conceptual understanding gives some sense of what is the most appropriate component of the internationalisation process and its intended goals. Indeed, reflecting on what internationalisation means cannot be separable from engaging with the question of what the purposes and objectives of higher education should be (De Wit, 2002, p. 19). It is an important question to be answered because internationalisation does not come cheap. It requires a considerable investment of resources, which will be presented in the next section.

## **6.2 The Perceived Importance and Rationales for Internationalisation of Higher Education**

This section focuses on the pivotal role of internationalisation of higher education to Vietnam and more specifically to University A and University B. The findings were obtained from empirical investigation through the questionnaires, interviews, and official documents.

### **6.2.1 The perceived importance of internationalisation of higher education**

*The perceived importance of internationalisation of higher education at University A.* In this subsection, the fundamental aim is to explore whether there is a parallel between the practices of internationalisation and the perspectives of people working within this area. Explorations of the perceived importance of internationalisation of higher education have illuminated current and future expectations about its role. The respondents were asked to rate the important level of internationalisation for the development of their institution and Vietnam as follows: 1= Not at all important; 2= Unimportant; 3= Neither important nor unimportant; 4 = Important; 5 = Very important. These results are depicted in Table 6.1:

**Table 6.1** The perceived level of importance of higher education internationalisation at University A

Internationalisation of Higher Education	Not at all important	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very Important	N
For Institution	0%	0%	3.2%	37.0%	59.8%	189
For Vietnam	0.0%	0.0%	3.7%	30.2%	66.1%	189

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

As shown in Table 6.1, regarding the role of internationalisation of higher education to the university itself and Vietnam, 96.8% and 96.3% of the respondents confirmed the vital importance of internationalisation at both institutional and national level. This finding shows that academic participants share their common recognition of internationalisation's importance.

**Table 6.2** The perceived level of importance of higher education internationalisation at University A

		The level of importance internationalisation has for your institution	The level of importance internationalisation has for Vietnam
University A	N	189	189
	Mean	4.5661	4.6243
	Std. Error of Mean	.04055	.04052
	Mode	5.00	5.00
	Std. Deviation	.55746	.55701
	Minimum	3.00	3.00
	Maximum	5.00	5.00

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

Further, in Table 6.2, the scores of mean (M), standard deviation (SD) and standard error (SE) calculated for these variables 'internationalisation for the institution' and 'for Vietnam as a whole' are presented into two columns respectively. As shown in Table 6.2, an examination of the mean values reveals that participants' perceptions of 'internationalisation for the institution' are high (M = 4.56), but still lower than 'internationalisation for Vietnam' (M = 4.62). The SD value of responses for both 'internationalisation for the institution' and 'internationalisation for Vietnam' is the same (SD = 0.55), and the value of SE is low for both (SE = 0.40), which

suggests the spread of scores within the whole population is low. This result confirms that majority of participants appreciated the high value of international promotion not only for their institution but for Vietnam also. This appreciation is very crucial in contributing to the effectiveness of internationalisation of higher education in practice because the success of this process requires a high consensus of people throughout the institution to highly regard the importance of internationalisation (Hudzik, 2013, p. 58).

***The perceived importance of internationalisation of higher education at University B.***

This section focuses on the significance of internationalisation to Vietnam and University B. In the survey questions, the respondents were asked to select one of five choices related to the important role of internationalisation of higher education using a five-point Likert scale. The response choices for these questions are all as follows: 1= Not at all important; 2= Unimportant; 3= Neither important nor unimportant; 4 = Important; 5 = Very important. These results are depicted in Table 6.3:

**Table 6.3** The perceived level of importance of higher education internationalisation at University B

Internationalisation of higher education	Not at all important	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very Important	N
For Institution	0%	0%	8.2%	39.7%	52.1%	74
For Vietnam	0.0%	0.0%	2.7%	21.9%	75.3%	74

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

Table 6.3 summarises the responses to the survey question, which asked participants to indicate the level of importance of internationalisation of higher education. Of the 74 valid responses, 66 (91.8%) agreed with the important level of internationalisation for their institution and 71 (97.2%) for Vietnam. Obviously, this demonstrates the significant role of internationalisation in the development of University B and Vietnam as a whole.

**Table 6.4** The perceived level of importance of higher education internationalisation at University B

		The level of importance internationalisation has for your institution	The level of importance internationalisation has for Vietnam
University B	N	74	74
	Mean	4.4459	4.7297
	Std. Error of Mean	.07487	.05867
	Mode	5.00	5.00
	Std. Deviation	.64409	.50470
	Minimum	3.00	3.00
	Maximum	5.00	5.00

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

In detail, Table 6.4 shows the value of Mean, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error of internationalisation both for the institution and for Vietnam. The data shows that the mean value for both institution and Vietnam is very high with  $M = 4.44$  ( $SD = 0.74$ ,  $SE = 0.64$ ) and  $M = 4.72$  ( $SD = 0.58$ ,  $SE = 0.50$ ) respectively. The value of SD (0.74 and 0.58) and SE (0.64 and 0.50) indicate that our mean is relatively close to the true mean of our overall population. Besides, the mode value is 5.0 for both items, which indicate that survey respondents share their common recognition of internationalisation significance not only to their institution but also to Vietnamese development.

### 6.2.2 Rationales for internationalisation of higher education

De Wit (2002) defines rationales as the motivations or the reasons institutions “do” internationalisation in certain ways. Without a clear set of rationales, the process of internationalisation in HEIs becomes an ad hoc or a fragmented response to the overwhelming number of new international opportunities available. Knight and De Wit (1995) formulated a framework of rationales for internationalisation in HEIs known as social/cultural, political, academic, and economic. Moreover, many authors have written at length about the changes in rationales both within and between these four groups (Knight & De Wit, 1999; Zha, 2003; Knight, 2004). Yet, what we do not understand is where our cases sit along this spectrum of internationalisation motives.

*Rationales for internationalisation of higher education at University A.* This section presents the analysis of empirical data from the questionnaires, interviews and on-site materials



to shed light on the reasons why University A should engage more in internationalisation. Regarding survey questions, the academic respondents were probed to rate the importance of 15 categories of institutionally based rationales for promoting internationalisation. These rationales belong to four groups: academic, social/cultural, and economic and political one, as presented in the conceptual framework in Chapter 2 proposed by Knight and de Wit (1995). Respondents answered questions on a Likert-type scale using a 5-point scale: 1= Not at all important, 2 = Unimportant, 3 = Neither important nor unimportant, 4 = Important, and 5 = Very important. The analysis of the quantitative data follows the guidance of De Wit (1999, p. 3), who suggests two crucial aspects in interpreting academic participants' views on rationales for internationalisation. First, academics do not have one exclusive rationale but a combination with a hierarchy in priority. Second, there is a strong overlap in rationales within their views and the main differences are in the hierarchy of priorities.

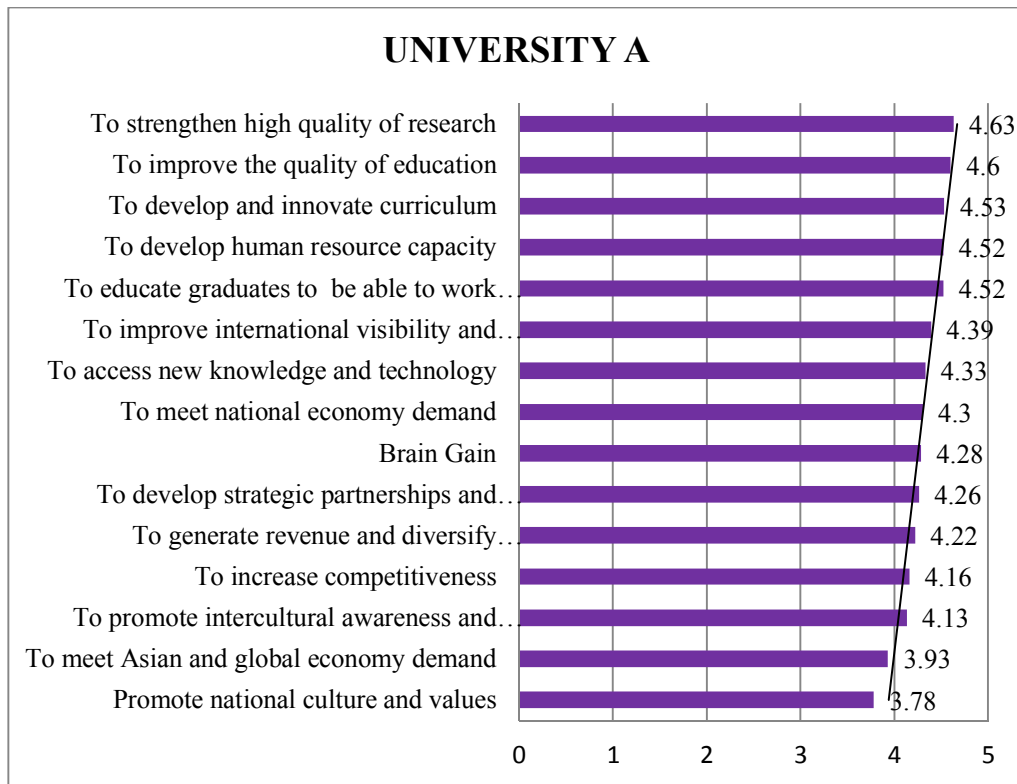
**Table 6.5** Levels of importance of institutional rationales for internationalisation of higher education rated by academics of University A

<b>Rationales for internationalisation of higher education</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>N</b>
To improve the quality of education	4.60	.57901	.04212	189
To strengthen high quality of research	4.63	.58259	.04238	189
To develop and innovate curriculum	4.53	.66455	.04834	189
To promote intercultural awareness and mutual understanding	4.13	.73087	.05316	189
To improve international visibility and reputation	4.39	.72577	.05279	189
To educate graduates to be able to work and study internationally	4.52	.60645	.04411	189
To develop strategic partnerships and alliances	4.26	.71175	.05177	189
To generate revenue and diversify financial resources	4.22	.70961	.05162	189
To increase competitiveness	4.16	.75059	.05460	189
To develop human resource capacity	4.52	.57004	.04146	189
Brain gain	4.28	.67071	.04879	189
To promote national culture and values	3.78	.81249	.05910	189
To access new knowledge and technology	4.33	.72932	.05305	189
To meet national economy demand	4.30	.70031	.05094	189
To meet Asian and global market demand	3.93	.75126	.05465	189

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

In Table 6.5, the means, standard deviations, and standard errors calculated for each item are presented into three columns. As shown in Table 6.5, at first glance, the majority of the mean values are significantly high with more than 4.0, ranging from the smallest ( $M = 3.78$ ) to the largest ( $M = 4.63$ ). This finding reveals that internationalisation of higher education has made inroads at University A, which aligns with the common trend of this direction in the published literature (Jeptoo & Razia, 2012, p. 365). The value of standard deviation is roughly 0.7 ( $SD=0.7 < 1.0$ ) across the whole set of this central theme, which indicates that the data concentrates around the mean, and is not scattered. Furthermore, the standard errors across the whole data set are just around  $SE = 0.5$ , which shows that this result is accurate in reflecting the actual population means. In general, the majority of respondents share the common sense of the expected benefits generated from the internationalisation of higher education.

Moreover, the survey outcomes reveal a tendency in which respondents put the greatest attention on academic rationales, followed by the economic focus, political and the cultural/social ones. The focus on educational motives of this study is consistent with the general trend of developing countries and middle-income countries, where their primary motivations are to enhance research and knowledge capacity and cultural understandings (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 293). These countries are classified as the 'buying' countries with a high demand for absorbing programmes from the Western providers to upgrade their under-developed systems (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 294). Therefore, the result contradicts with other findings from the developed countries, which have been motivated by economic concerns as they provide most services and reap the main financial benefits from these services (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 294).



**Figure 6.1** Levels of importance of institutional rationales for internationalisation of higher education rated by academics of University A (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- Developed by the author of this study.

Another way to make the data clearer is illustrative in Figure 6.1. As shown in Figure 6.1, survey respondents of University A rated three rationales as being of greatest importance, including ‘to strengthen high quality of research’ (M= 4.63), followed by ‘to improve the quality of education’ (M= 4.60), and ‘to develop and innovate curriculum’ (M= 4.53). These findings are consistent with the strategic development of University A, “the aim is to develop [name of the University] into a Research-Oriented University by 2020,” (The University website, 2016). The findings of this study concur with the result of Nguyen (2011, p. 180), in which educational quality enhancement and research excellence achievement are the most important rationales for the university’s internationalisation efforts. Furthermore, the second place is ‘to develop human resource capacity,’ and ‘to educate graduates to be able to work and study internationally’ (M= 4.52). The findings correspond to the increased demand for higher education to keep pace with

change and increased government attention to national needs for graduates (Pham & Starkey, 2016, p.371).

Since participants belonged to four groups of disciplines, namely economics, education, foreign languages and science and technology, the data was further analysed to compare among them. In general, across the groups, a significant difference was found between groups on only 'to improve the quality of education' and 'to promote national culture and values' (see Appendix 7, section 1). Regarding 'to improve the quality of education', 100% of participants in both economic group (M= 4.82) and science and technology group (M= 4.62) and 96.2% of foreign language group (M= 4.54) perceived this rationale to be important, only 87.1% of education group (M = 4.46) viewed it as such level. Regarding 'to promote national culture and values', while 90.5% of foreign languages participants rated this motivation as an importance (M= 4.11), only 74.1% of science and technology participants (M= 3.75), 69.24% of economics participants (M= 3.58), 64.1% of education participants (M= 3.56) viewed this component as such level. With all other rationales, no significant differences were found between these groups. The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed these interpretations as shown in section 1 of Appendix 7. This finding suggests that all faculty members showed a high degree of commitment towards internationalisation, which aligns with the research of Altbach and Lewis (1996).

In addition to this, when comparing among the participants regarding their levels of education, typically bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees, a significant difference was found between groups on only 'brain gain' and 'to promote national culture and values'. The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed these interpretations as shown in section 1 of Appendix 7. It is apparent that 'to promote national culture and values' is not only different between groups of discipline but also between groups in terms of levels of education. Generally, it is clear that, comparisons of these four groups by disciplines, the largest proportion of participants, who believed all of these motivations to be important, are from economics while those from education are the lowest.

Knight (1997) categorised rationales for internationalisation into four main approaches known as academic, social and cultural, political and economic rationales. Each dominant one has various sub-levels of reasons within, which makes the categorisation become more and more of a complex and challenging task. In accounting for this complexity, the qualitative findings

from interview participant's voices were analysed and synthesised according to the traditional four-category approach with multiple reasons embedded within.

Qualitative analysis of the interviews with key informants helps to clarify, confirm, or contrast with findings from the quantitative survey. One notable point is that interviewees often mentioned and explained particular on-going international programmes, projects or activities to illustrate the rationales underpinning the internationalisation process within their institution. This is similar to the suggestions of Knight (2004), in which rationales are often reflected in the policies and programmes developed and eventually implemented at the institution.

Qualitative data are consistent with the quantitative results, which helped to capture the breadth of such a complex field. In particular, participants touched upon the four categories of rationales proposed by Knight (1997). These four features of rationale categorisation cover all basic functions of an educational institution in fulfilling their cultural and ideological, social and economic, educational and scientific roles that have been assigned (Enders, 2004, p. 362). In this study, although academic rationale takes the highest priority, the role of the economic, cultural, social and political rationales is not ignored as they are interconnected rather than mutually exclusive. For example, the reciprocal relationship between the academic and economic rationales can be explained simply in the way that international activities cannot be implemented without funding or financial support. However, the dominant purpose weighed heavily much more on quality improvement rather than financial reasons.

Interview data indicated that academic motives for internationalisation at University A are based on satisfying the need of the institution's educational mission and strategies and aligning academically with an interconnected global world. They are now discussed in turn:

First, the majority of participants in this study were found to believe that internationalisation has positive effects on quality development in teaching, learning and research, which is relevant to the survey results as the top choice. This view is exemplified in the belief of one academic leader:

The internationalisation of higher education fosters the sustainable development of the university. It makes the educational quality better, the research quality better, meeting all the quality standards for educational institutions at national and international level. The overall purpose is to improve the educational quality of the whole institution (Interview 4-AEd1).

In particular, regarding the area of programmes of study, according to the President's message, "Educational quality is always of the priority concern of [name of the university] (University website, 2015). Therefore, internationalisation plays a critical role in enhancing the quality of learning and teaching process of the university through learning from world-class universities. One academic respondent claimed:

Internationalisation contributes to the quality improvement of the university and completing the university's mission best. In other words, internationalisation will also help to improve the quality of teaching, learning process and outcomes of the university (Interview 1- AEc1).

In this regard, this research participant was found to believe that one of the important driving forces for introducing foreign higher education activities is to improve the quality of the primary functions of the university. In this participant's further clarification, in attempts to improve the quality of teaching, learning process and outcomes, the university has to approach the advanced teaching methods or adopt the internationally accredited programmes of prestigious universities. In doing so, the participant believed that quality of academic programmes and the teaching methods of the lecturers will be improved. This finding is consistent with the idea of Smith (1994, p. 17, as cited in de Wit, 2002, p. 98), who appreciates the interconnection between internationalisation and quality enhancement in higher education. With this expectation, for example, the university seeks international relations with prestigious foreign universities. As one interview participant explained:

It is clear that in comparison with other universities worldwide, the background of the Vietnamese educational system is still very low, thus, when we have been evaluated at the low level like that, we have to seek international cooperative relations with high-quality universities of the developed countries for exchanging academics (Interview 9- AEd1).

Participants' data revealed a wide range of advantages regarding international collaboration in academic programmes. For example, some academic participants noted:

If the joint degree programmes were set up, they would offer us their foreign textbooks, their materials, their content, their syllabus, their teaching methods so that our students can learn in the Western way (Interview 1- AEc1).

In this expression, through international cooperation, the curricula and pedagogy of University A will be upgraded by learning or adopting the well-constructed degree-level curricula of world-

class universities. Other academic participants shared their strong agreement on the expected benefit from international collaborative programmes:

Through collaborative degree-level programmes, our academic programmes are internationally recognised, and our course books are internationally recognised. That is because when the famous foreign universities agree to have collaborative degree-level programmes with us, there is equivalent between our academic programmes and theirs (Interview 1- AEc1).

As a result, these international collaborative programmes also have a positive impact on other traditional programmes as well, I mean, the lecturers who teach in the joint degree-level programmes, also teach in other traditional academic programmes, I mean, they will conduct the same subjects and perform the similar teaching methods. Consequently, this would create a great impact on the teaching and learning atmosphere of our university, which would help to improve the quality of all academic programmes (Interview-12ASc1).

In these perceptions, collaborative academic programmes are considered as an effective way of developing international recognition of their academic programmes. In their view, these programmes are not only for the attainment of upgrading individual lessons, courses or programmes but also gaining international prestige or recognition. Moreover, the aspirations of participants are not just limited to these collaborative academic programmes themselves, but also expanded on improving the quality of other domestic academic programmes.

In general, these examples above clearly provide some sense of the multiple positive outcomes that could be gained through international cooperation. This finding aligns with Knight (2004, p. 23), who highlights that internationalisation gives an international dimension to teaching and helps enhancing quality and reaching international academic standards. This finding, crucially, suggests establishing more joint degree programmes with prestigious universities. Most responses here reflected the significant contribution of the international collaboration: standardising the curriculum, supplementing imported course books and materials, increasing the professional development opportunities, improving international and professional experience for teaching staff and improving domestic academic programmes.

Analysis of the interviews reveals another rationale of internationalisation found in the perspective of participants, which focuses on research and knowledge production. This motivation is reflected in its strategic plan, which states that the university is about to become a leading research university in Vietnam in 2020—with an international reputation (University

Website, 2016). In this perspective, some participants believed that internationalisation provides the university with the opportunity to have international scientific collaboration and international published recognition when cooperating with their counterparts in world-class universities. The University, like other national, regional universities, emphasises generating new knowledge to raise its prestige in research.

The university must fulfil the science research duty because scientific research will help the university to develop (Interview 14- ASc1).

In this quotation, research and knowledge production have become a priority in the university's agenda. Therefore, academic participants find internationalisation as a crucial element in their research engagement and research productivity such as international conference activities, joint authoring of journal articles and books and exchange of academic staff (Hayle, 2008). The same interview participant continued:

If our scientific products and publications would like to be ensured a high- quality research, they must be recognised internationally. If they are only recognised within Vietnam, not at the international level, then this result is not very good at all. Thus we must do something so that our scientific products are recognised globally, and this recognition needs help from international research cooperation (Interview 14- ASc1).

In this perspective, the objective of international cooperation in research is explained in the sense that internationalisation efforts are intended to bring the high quality of research products and publications. In interview participants' clarification, there is a strong linkage between research quality and its international acknowledgment. Furthermore, in strengthening their research activities or academic research performance, the establishment of such international collaboration is necessary. This relationship not only helps the lecturers to increase their research productivity but also to improve their institution's reputation. The expected benefits of the research activities are exemplified in another interview participants' claim:

After a period of conducting scientific research with foreign partners at our university or in other countries, the lecturers would have international publications. Of course, our university would be named in those international journals as well. That is also one way of promoting the image of our university to worldwide (Interview 14- ASc1).



This finding reveals that international collaboration in research not only offers the academics opportunities to progress their academic profiles, to share their academic achievements with the international community but also to bring forward the institution's overall competency, reputation, and ranking. Furthermore, participants adhering to this view discussed the positive impact of international research collaboration on academic programmes. They emphasised the necessity of research to the quality of learning outcomes regarding employable graduates. As one academic leader noted:

Internationalisation of higher education not only helps our institution to become a centre of scientific technology where people around the world can come and do research but also innovate the degree programmes to meet the needs of society (Interview 4- AEd1).

According to Abbott and Doucouliagos (2004), research is considered as the most important source of knowledge generation. Higher education research is regarded as a key part of innovation systems at all levels (Coombs & Georghiou, 2002). The relationship between research and teaching has been asserted in a wide range of published literature with two common forms: research-led teaching and research-informed teaching (Marsh & Hattie, 2002; Griffiths, 2004). Therefore, in attempts to meet society's needs, the role of research in producing knowledge-based society to serve academic programmes is necessary.

The interview participants' data offer another rationale of internationalisation, which focuses on accessing new knowledge and technology. As one interview participant noted:

As I said, the internationalisation of higher education facilitates the favourable condition for the lecturers to access the world's advanced knowledge, curriculum, teaching, and research methodology to improve professional quality of faculty. If the students participate in international cooperative activities, they can gain international experience for their better future employment (Interview 11- ASc1).

In this quotation, the interview participant perceived internationalisation purposes as an opportunity for assessing the other learning systems that have well-equipped facilities, innovative teaching methods, and a modern library system with outstanding special collections. According to Altbach and Knight (2007), universities across the world are encouraged to take part to acquire the benefits of global interconnectedness. In this perspective, the objective of internationalisation is manifested in the precious opportunities to access the advanced and updated scientific knowledge from the top world universities. This finding supports the work of

Yang (2002, p. 85), who persuasively argues that internationalisation provides a great opportunity for universities, faculty members, and students to engage in the world educational system. Indeed, there is an enormous benefit behind that opportunity as it provides a fundamental support in getting updated scientific knowledge in a wide range of disciplines and guiding the right direction in writing international articles or doing research (Tierney, 2004; Stromquist, 2007). One interviewee participant commented:

The academic staff will know the fashionable trends that the world is currently interested in. Internationalisation helps people to adjust to being consistent with that general trend in teaching and research.... Therefore, I think the key thing is that we can see what the whole world is currently doing so that we have a specific strategy to go in parallel with that (Interview 5-1AEd).

In this rationale, international cooperation is significant in the sense that this type of cooperation can help academics share their good practice, adapt and adopt the good practices of others and view the latest information and technology.

Analysis of the interviews reveals another rationale of internationalisation, which focuses on the attainment of international professional knowledge and skills for academic staff and students. In participants' arguments, overseas experiences gained from study, working or doing research can efficiently help people to enhance their global views and multicultural competency. Therefore, the participants have a strong desire for the university to offer more exchanging activities and cooperative programmes in order to advance their professional knowledge and foreign language skills. This finding aligns with the empirical investigation reported by Doyle (2013) and Kovacs (1997) who found that faculty who participated in international activities, for example, research, gained significant benefits from these activities. These attainments include the development of new ideas, the inspiration for existing research pursuits, and valuable opportunities for developing regular contact and maintaining connections with colleagues in other countries.

Further, participants adhering to this view emphasised that foreign qualification is considered as a priority for attaining and maintaining a faculty position. For example, one academic leader of University A claimed:

The university has a very open policy to attract the talented people, especially recruiting highly qualified doctoral students educated abroad. The leaders are very interested in this matter. It is not only to gain brain from the outside; the university also has the policy to increase this from the

inside. The lecturers have been required to get a Ph.D. degree from the famous or prestigious foreign universities. There are many types of scholarship for the lecturers, and thus the opportunities offered for the lecturers to further their study abroad are numerous as well. During the past years, the number of lecturers obtaining a Ph.D. degree, associate professors, professors have been increased significantly (Interview 18- AD1).

This perspective reflected the important role of internationalisation in boosting the qualification and capacity of their academic staff to the international level. Internationalisation of higher education is considered as leading to better-qualified people working within; however, more than that, a more highly prestigious reputation of the university. Internationalisation's contribution to intellectual and scholarly values has been recognised well in the literature (Childress, 2009; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010).

The findings of interview source reveal another educational significance, emphasising the connection between internationalisation and the competitiveness enhancement of University A at national, regional and global levels.

In my view, internationalisation of higher education helps to promote the competitiveness of the institution in the international arena. For example, we are trying to improve the quality of education and research to achieve international standards, when achieving that standard, the competitive capacity of our institution also is lifted up (Interview-18AD1).

This perspective is underpinned by the belief that the competitive capacity is crucial in deciding other features such as the regional or international reputation and standards. This finding corresponds to the prediction of Altbach (2004), which raises the awareness of international competitive environment:

As Asian universities grow in stature, they will need to become able to function in a highly competitive academic world. All the elements of academic life, including research, the distribution of knowledge, the students, and the academic profession, are part of the internationally competitive market (p. 14).

Last but not least in this academic category of rationales, when explaining the motivations or reasons for furthering internationalisation of the University, interview participants emphasise the attainment of international status, prestige, and reputation as the ultimate purpose for internationalisation promotion. As one claimed:

Our university would like to gain national and international prestige. This prestige is reflected in our outstanding achievements of education, scientific research, and technology. They include, for example, publishing scientific papers in international articles, receiving innovative technology transfer from famous universities, having international projects, winning international awards for our students, or having highly qualified trained graduates. When the university has that reputation, it will address all the other demands. For example, if the university has that prestige, it will attract more funding resources for international development projects or collaborative international projects, more international researchers cooperating with us, open more opportunities for research cooperation, etc..... (Interview 7 - ASc2).

In this perspective, the research participant sees the educational rationale for the internationalisation of higher education as the attainment of 'the recognition of other universities worldwide.' The benefits of internationalisation are described as international standards, compete with other institutions, enhance their ability to function globally and gain reputability through attracting researchers and students to the institution. In their explanation, gaining the recognition as a high-quality institution is crucial, as this recognition would bring a wide range of positive outcomes to the development of their institution. It is of note that these expected benefits are connected and mutual impact with one another. This finding corresponds to work of Knight (2013), who found this motivation as a quest for name recognition internationally. According to Knight (2013, p. 3), universities should not stop their processes of development to build up a name and reputation that draws respect in the international community of higher education institutions. Another shared this view in their responses:

In my view, the ultimate aim of international cooperation is to win recognition of the universities worldwide. That is, the university would be named highly in the ranking table of Asia and the world. That is the prestige of the university, the quality of our educational system, our knowledge production, and the quality of our skilled graduates. For example, this is the place providing a highly qualified human resource to serve for high technology industry (Interview 6- ASc1).

This view has explicitly acknowledged the link between reputation and internationalisation. This linkage is a positive correlation, which serves as a prominent reason why internationalisation was suggested as a primary strategy for the University. Internationalisation has been identified as a tool to reach the institutional goal of recognition internationally. The finding is consistent with the document analysis, in which the President of University A emphasised, "Since its

establishment, [name of the university] has continuously developed its international collaboration, and several disciplines have been recognised internationally” (President’s Message, 2015). In addition, the President believed that ‘international status’ is a reasonable goal for the university as the university has obtained an elite status in the national league table with “the University ranked 5th among the leading Vietnamese universities in 2017” (University Website, 2017).

Second, economic motives for internationalisation are to earn more revenue, to reduce operating risks and threats and to get resources for the activities on the home campus (Knight, 2004, pp.10-11). In this study, the economic rationale underlies efforts aimed at developing the human resources/capital needed for the nation to stay internationally competitive. This motivation is exemplified in one-research participants’ view:

Whether the learning output can compete in the international labour market is the most important matter. As you can see, the primary mission of the university is to help the learners to participate in the international labour market. If the university does not participate in international integration, it will not catch up with the updated knowledge of science and technological innovation. Thus, the University must join in the international integration to help the learners not only to be able to work within the nation but also in the foreign countries (Interview 12- AEd1).

The key emphasis here is on the goal of these efforts for providing students with an environment where they collaboratively explore the world and its social, cultural, political, and economic issues more comprehensively (Sánchez-Sánchez, Salaberri & Sánchez-Pérez, 2017). Not only was internationalisation regarded as an importance, but also most of the higher education leaders also interviewed recognised that their institutions need a plan to internationalise their organization successfully. One Dean confirmed this view:

As you know, our university’s mission is very clear, providing high-quality human resources to meet the sustainable socio-economic development of the Central Highlands area and the whole country. In addition to this, it is necessary that we must have an oriented direction or a strategic plan for internationalisation, it is about educating the human resources to be capable of working in Southeast Asia and around the world (Interview 5-AEd1).

That is a mutual connection between other aspects such as politics, economics, and society with education:

In essence, if you want to internationalise all other fields such as economics, politics or social, you have to internationalise education first. If you do not internationalise education, how do you provide human resources meeting the developing requirements of the economic and social international integration and even in defensive and security sectors? Only through fostering internationalisation of higher education, we can integrate into the global economy (Interview 20-AEd2).

According to this belief, the success of economic, political, and cultural integration requires an entirely new set of social attitudes and beliefs. This requirement could only be achieved through the internationalisation of education with the hope to speed up the labour development.

Human capital is one of the sources to help the socio-economic development of Vietnam, and the university is a place to provide the stock of human resources, a place to prepare for students to meet the requirements of society. Thus, the process of internationalising higher education affects directly or indirectly to the quality of the workforce. Therefore, it greatly contributes to the social and economic development of many countries like Vietnam (Interview1-AEc1).

This demand stems from being a member of international or global organizations or community such as ASEAN, WTO, and AEC.

To Vietnam, currently, Vietnam has taken part in many protocols, as well as programmes, networks, MOU signed with many foreign partners worldwide, especially the establishment of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) by the end of 2015 toward the formation of a unified area which allows free movement of skilled labour. Thus, it can be seen that the cooperative exchange between Vietnam and the advanced countries is a prerequisite to create a highly qualified workforce, not only serving in Vietnam but also in other countries, especially within the ASEAN countries (Interview 6-AS1).

This free trade market stresses skilled and professional worker competition; therefore, it is crucial that institutional stakeholders, particularly the students and teaching, have to grasp their international knowledge and skills. One participant explained:

To Vietnam, of course, it is very important. When Vietnam has joined in the global economic system, particularly, Viet Nam has joined in many free trade agreements. Consequently, foreign workers can come to work in Vietnam and Vietnamese workers can work in the foreign countries. Thus, to have a learning output successfully competing in the international market, requires us to

pay attention to the strict demands not only nationwide, but also in the other foreign countries (Interview 11-ASc1).

Undoubtedly, this participant is well aware of the fact that Vietnam is on the way towards one ASEAN Economic community; therefore, the Vietnamese workforce has to compete in both domestic and international market because of the free movement of the labour market. In a wide-ranging review of published literature, education is increasingly seen as a commodity to be purchased by a consumer to build a "skill set" to be used in the marketplace or a product to be bought and sold by multinational corporations (Altbach, 2002). Specifically, financial accountability and the economic rationales are mainly in the English speaking countries (Harris, 2008). For these countries, maximising revenue is a motivation in which higher education institutions compete to attract maximum consumers in the global knowledge market (Altbach & Knight (2007). More seriously, financial pressures push universities towards marketed, competitive, and unethical interpretations of internationalisation, whereas ethical development policies and programmes for mutual learning and benefit are eroded (Knight, 2004; Middlehurst, 2002). For this case, financial benefit is exemplified in one academic leader's expectation:

We also pay attention to the financial benefit, however, the currently we have not had any international cooperative programmes that bring us financial benefit; it is only mutually beneficial for both sides. However, that does not mean we do not care ... That means our goal is for educational quality development first .... (Interview 4-AEd1).

Another interviewee participant echoed this view:

The university has signed MOU, we have cooperated with foreign partners worldwide mainly because of seeking the funding sources for students or lecturers to study further or do scientific research (Interview-14ASc1).

This participant also provided a full detail of an example of how they can get financial benefit from cooperation in doing research:

We currently increase revenue or funding source through conducting cooperative research projects with the foreign universities. We always seek funding sources for doing scientific research from foreign organisations, for example, the lecturers of our university also have found some research funding from international cooperative projects with foreign professors (Interview 14-ASc1).

The example above suggests that the participants at University A detailed financial interest in their internationalisation. In other words, financial funding is regarded as an important factor in facilitating their internationalisation efforts. However, the economic-related rationale is not considered as the primary purposes for University A to participate in internationalisation of higher education. According to interview participants' clarification, as a public university, the main financial source for operating all daily basis activities at University A comes from the Vietnamese State. Thus, generating financial resources is not a prerequisite for internationalisation in this case.

Third, cultural and social motives also play a significant role in achieving the healthy survival of national identities, cultural diversity and balancing the homogenising effect of globalisation (Hawawini, 2011). The cultural/social rationale is based on the view that the "homogenising effects of globalisation" (Knight, 1997, p.11) needs to be resisted and the culture, as well as the language of nations, need to be respected. According to the finding of this study, this view places particular emphasis on understanding foreign languages and cultures, the preservation of national culture, and respect for diversity. According to the research findings, this motivation usually depends on the fields and majors.

Promoting cultural identity depends on the fields of research or education. At our school, the majority of disciplines are related to technical specialisation, we must import the ideas, and innovative technology from the developed world ... The majors related to specialised linguistics or sociological studies, for example, we could introduce Vietnamese culture, customs, language, people, and country worldwide. Then this would be significant to bring Vietnamese cultural identity to the world (Interview 14- ASc1).

Clearly, in the sense of the cultural benefit, the case has put a lot of effort on restructuring the cultural programme such as Vietnamese Studies, Cultural studies, or cultural exchange programmes with the orientation of promoting the image of Vietnamese people and country to the international social community. According to the stated commitment of these academic programmes:

We commit to providing students with basic knowledge of cultural theories and methods of cultural studies; basic and systematic knowledge of the elements and aspects of culture; specific knowledge about Vietnamese culture, world culture and applied culture (University website, 2017).



This rationale emphasises the promotion and protection of national and cultural identity. It seems to be the opposite of the adoption of international models and practices. However, the manifestation of internationalisation is not unidirectional. That must also help to promote Vietnamese culture as well as localise the education and culture regarding internationalisation. In this regard, participants were found to believe that intercultural awareness and mutual understanding are the key success in all the international relationships. According to them, this expected benefit can be achieved through a wide range of programmes or activities with foreign partners such as exchange programmes, joint collaborative programmes, multicultural courses or international research cooperation. These activities benefit the participants on both sides in broadening their cultural awareness and knowledge of each other. In their explanation, this is a two-way dimensional process: introduce Vietnamese culture worldwide and welcome the cultures of other countries. As such, they believed that friendship and partnership understanding would be strengthened, which are fundamental in the collaborative partnerships' planning and activities in the future.

Finally, according to Zha (2003) the category of political motive is related to the issues such as stability, peace, ideological stance, and security through mutually sharing resources. For this case, participants believed that internationalisation collaboration between their institution and its counterpart in foreign countries would strengthen reciprocal partnerships. According to them, establishing international strategic alliances will strengthen knowledge and language attainment, environmental interdependence, curriculum enhancement and research collaboration, which aligns with a number of authors (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Knight & De Wit 1995). For example, one vice-dean stated:

Internationalisation obviously helps to foster the cooperative and strategic alliances with foreign partners, which is fundamental to improve the development of the university. As you know, our higher education system is still less qualified and modern in comparison with the developed countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States. When these foreign partners establish a cooperative relationship with us, they will transfer the innovative technology or share their experiences and scientific achievements of their long time research (Interview-18AD1).

This finding aligns with Knight (2004, pp. 23-24), who highlights that international cooperation is considered as an essential way to develop closer geopolitical ties and economic relationships. According to Knight's (2004, p. 27) suggestion, this rationale signifies in the sense that any

higher education institution has to seek an alliance that is considered strategic to ensure a place in the map of international higher education.

Briefly, most of the research participants thought that their universities necessitated to be more internationalised. Participants adhering to this view perceived that the internationalisation of higher education was an urgent demand as internationalisation in higher education was considered as a matter of survival of the University. As one interview participant claimed:

In my opinion, internationalisation of higher education will be a likelihood of survival for a university. That would mean if the university still maintains the traditional way of thinking, then inevitably the university won't develop, and gradually it will become weaker and wither (Interview 5- AEd1).

To provide more detailed explanation about this, one interviewee participant claimed:

For my university, internationalisation not only plays a significant role in the development of the country in general but also is very important for this area because this area is a narrow strip centre connecting the two ends of the country. Thus, in helping the economies to develop, it is necessary to foster it to integrate into the global economy (Interview 20-AEd2).

This area not only plays an important role in other places within Vietnam but also acts as a gateway between Vietnam and the Asian region. This finding aligns with Knight (2004, p. 27), who asserts that internationalisation ultimately serves the economic, political, cultural, and academic objectives of this nation.

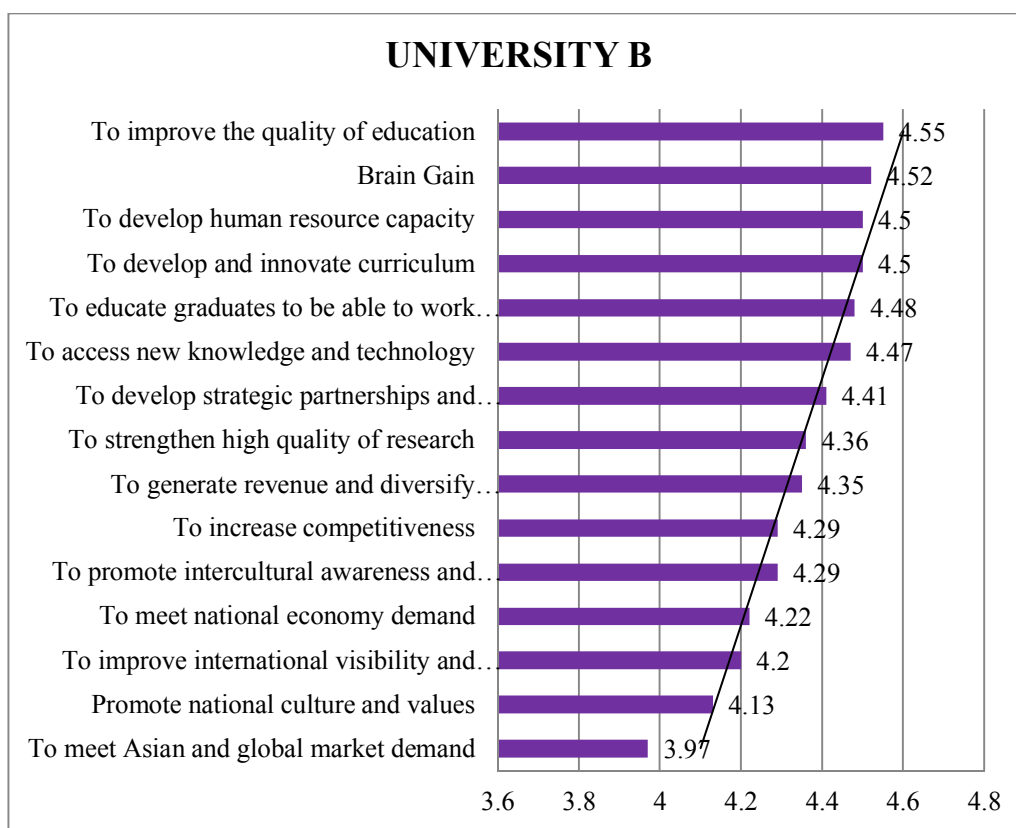
***Rationales for internationalisation of higher education at University B.*** In this subsection, the researcher sought to measure the perception of the academics on the importance of rationales for University B to be more internationalised. The descriptive statistics of the survey are depicted in Table 6.6 including the mean and standard deviation and standard error for each item. As shown in Table 6.6, the ratings are not significantly different from the largest to the smallest values across all fifteen categories of rationales (the highest M = 4.55, the lowest M = 3.97). Due to the low score of standard deviation (the highest score SD < 1) and standard error (the highest score SE ≤ 0.1), the results indicate that there is a discernible convergence in the perceptions of academic respondent towards the desirable benefits for University B to foster internationalisation of higher education.

**Table 6.6** Levels of importance of institutional rationales for internationalisation of higher education rated by academics of University B

<b>Rationales for internationalisation of higher education</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>N</b>
To improve the quality of education	4.55	.72418	.08418	74
To strengthen high quality of research	4.36	.73231	.08513	74
To develop and innovate curriculum	4.50	.62483	.07263	74
To promote intercultural awareness and mutual understanding	4.29	.59056	.06865	74
To improve international visibility and reputation	4.20	.82727	.09617	74
To educate graduates to be able to work and study internationally	4.48	.72609	.08441	74
To develop strategic partnerships and alliances	4.41	.66222	.07698	74
To generate revenue and diversify financial resources	4.35	.86693	.10078	74
To increase competitiveness	4.29	.69695	.08102	74
To develop human resource capacity	4.50	.64638	.07514	74
Brain gain	4.52	.68692	.07985	74
To promote national culture and values	4.13	.70855	.08237	74
To access new knowledge and technology	4.47	.70658	.08214	74
To meet national economy demand	4.22	.80320	.09337	74
To meet Asian and global market demand	3.97	.75803	.08812	74

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

In order to make the survey results more readable, all fifteen listed rationales are presented in bar chart following a hierarchy as depicted in Figure 6.2:



**Figure 6.2** Levels of importance of institutional rationales for internationalisation of higher education rated by academics of University B (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- Developed by the author of this study.

In Figure 6.2, the first impression from the results is that all the academic categories of rationale were rated higher than economic and cultural desirable benefits, ranging from the lowest ( $M = 3.97$ ) to the highest ( $M = 4.55$ ). Participants expected that the most significant desirable benefits for University B to be further internationalised are ‘to improve the quality of education’ ( $M=4.55$ ), ‘brain gain’ ( $M = 4.52$ ), ‘to develop human resource capacity’ ( $M=4.50$ ) and ‘to develop and innovate curriculum’ ( $M = 4.50$ ). These findings are consistent with the strategic goals of the University “a prestigious Centre for education–training, scientific research in the fields of basic sciences and science education to contribute to the economic-social development” (The university website, 2016).

The second place is ‘to educate graduates to be able to work and study internationally’ ( $M=4.48$ ) and the third place was ‘to access new knowledge and technology’ ( $M=4.47$ ). While research studies in Europe and North America (Knight, 2001; van der Wende, 1997) showed that a multi-cultural immersion and understanding was considered as an essential benefit of

internationalisation for both the academics and students. However, this cultural was not found to be significant for this case in a developing Asian country. Internationalisation is strongly related to the academic category of rationales than other reasons, which Stier (2010) considers this type as the quest to fulfil educational value.

From the viewpoints of survey participants, the results generated from this survey data show that both items ‘to meet national economy demand’ was ranked ninth and ‘to meet Asian and global market demand’ was ranked the lowest. According to Jeptoo and Razia (2012, p. 367), the economic reason is principally relevant to developed countries around the world. Further, as shown in section 2 of appendix 7, comparisons of four groups of disciplines on all of the rational categories, a significant difference was found between groups on only ‘to improve the quality of education’, ‘to develop human resource capacity’, and ‘to improve international visibility and reputation’. In particular, regarding ‘to improve the quality of education’, while 100% of participants in economics ( $M = 4.90$ ), science and technology ( $M = 4.73$ ), and foreign languages ( $M = 4.63$ ) perceived this rationale to be important, only 77.8% of those in education agreed with that ( $M = 4.25$ ). With regard to ‘to develop human resource capacity’, 100% of participants in economics ( $M=5.00$ ) and science and technology ( $M = 4.53$ ) considered this rationale to be important, the proportion of those in foreign languages is lower (90.9%) ( $M = 4.45$ ) and in education (85.1%) ( $M = 4.33$ ). About ‘to improve international visibility and reputation’, 93.3% of participants in science and technology ( $M = 4.53$ ), 90.0% of participants in economics ( $M = 4.50$ ) and 86.4 % of those in foreign languages ( $M = 4.31$ ) considered this motivation to be important, only 62.9 % of those in education ( $M= 3.81$ ) viewed this item as such level. Generally, it is apparent that, comparisons of these four groups by disciplines, the largest proportion of participants, who believed all of these motivations to be important, are from economics while those from education are the lowest.

The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed these interpretations as shown in section 2 of Appendix 7.

Further, since survey respondents varied regarding their educational levels, data were also analysed to compare among them. Generally, a significant difference was found between groups on the majority of rational categories except ‘to develop and innovate curriculum’, ‘to promote intercultural awareness and mutual understanding’, ‘to promote national culture and values’. For example, regarding ‘to improve the quality of education’, 97% of respondents obtained a

master's degree indicated this rationale to be important; however, only 50% of those obtained a bachelor's degree and 50% of those obtained a doctoral degree agreed with that. In terms of 'brain gain', for example, while 100% of respondents with a doctoral degree and 98.4% of respondents with a master's degree considered this motivation to be important, 25% of those with a bachelor degree viewed in the same way. In general, the discrepancy in this finding is related not only the characteristics of academic department or the nature of disciplines but also educational levels of respondents.

The following section discusses the themes that emerged from the interviewee data when the participants were asked to identify what they thought of as the rationales for furthering internationalisation at their institution.

In interview respondents' discussion, education and research quality improvement emerged as the most desirable objectives for University B to be internationalised further. They acknowledge the significance of internationalisation in developing their institution and be less isolated. There was a broad discussion among academic participants surrounding this matter. For example, one academic leader stated:

As I said, if the university wants to develop, wants to survive, it must integrate, and there are no other ways around. International integration is for us being recognised by others so that we can attract the resources for development (Interview 3- BSc1).

In this quotation, internationalisation programmes are considered as helping their institution not being "pushed out of the developing circle of the world educational system." In their expectation, internationalisation activities would bridge the gap between developing and developed countries. In research participants' perspectives, the University was looking to achieve this aim through building up internationalisation with foreign partners:

Due to the limitation of our current capacity, we need the support from other foreign universities through integrated international relations for quality enhancement (Interview-17BS1).

According to the national quality standards for higher education institutions, our university has not achieved those criteria yet. We assess ourselves at a level that we need to learn experiences from the other countries to upgrade our system. That is also the reason why we need to integrate internationally to develop (Interview 2- BSc1).

Participants adhering to this view expected to receive assistance from their international relationship with foreign partners. These supportive forms could be the technological transfer of teaching, for example, as one interview participant claimed:

Our university needs to adopt some advanced models of the developed countries to improve and develop. Therefore, internationalisation is very important for modernizing our university (Interview 24- BS2).

In fact, the university is bounded by local status. Therefore, in participants' expectation, internationalisation of higher education would bring modernisation to reform the education quality of the University, which was still considered as ill-equipped and underdeveloped conditions. In particular, participants adhering to this view desired to set up some advanced models of teaching or academic programmes with foreign universities in developed countries. This finding is consistent with the common trend of majority of Vietnamese higher education institutions, in which applying western models for pedagogic methods and curricula has become the most effective way in upgrading their educational system and quality (Gopal, 2011). Another senior academic expressed:

I think that is because of the change of technology, the significant development of technology as well as the information system requires a new design for the educational system to serve for the fourth industrial revolution (4IR) occurrence (Interview 24-BSc2).

This view supported the observation of Kerry (2012, p. 114), who conclude that the human world is fuelled continuously by new scientific inventions and the radical development of information technology. The impacts of global economic, cultural, and educational forces on higher education are inevitable (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002, p. 282). This transformation has challenged the current conditions of all the higher educational institutions in Vietnam, not only this case. Therefore, in keeping pace with the world higher education systems, seeking the technology transfer would be a good strategic direction for the case according to participants' views.

Another academic rationale mentioned by interview participants was about opportunities to access new knowledge and technology. According to them, obtaining new knowledge and technology through international cooperative relationship was vital to the improvement of their educational system and quality. For example, one interviewee expressed:

I think internationalisation of higher education will create more opportunities for students and staff to access to a developed higher education system in the developed countries. They have a long historical development of higher education, they have modern facilities and advance scientific knowledge. Thus they are rich in experiences and then we can learn from them (Interview 16-BSc1).

In this response, the expected benefits of internationalisation were viewed as the possibility of learning anything useful from foreign higher education systems or the transferability of technological advancement of the otherness from the developed world (Enders, 2004, p. 366). In particular, participants believed that international collaboration would offer modern facilities and scientific knowledge transfer, entailing the betterment of one's own system through broadening teaching, learning, administrative, scientific, and managerial horizons (Al Shalabi, 2011, p. 31).

Furthermore, interview participants' data revealed that strengthening human resource was considered as a significant reason for furthering internationalisation. This finding is consistent with the survey results as one of the top five choices. In this perspective, internationalisation is expected to qualify the academic staff. Two academic respondents' comments are:

Now mostly we have just focused on staff development, made the most of the government funding, etc. (Interview 15-BEd1).

In our opinion when we expand cooperative international relations to enhance the foreign languages as well as the professional capacity for our academic staff (Interview 2-BSc1).

Interview participants emphasised the importance of professional development through various forms of internationalisation. In research participants' perspective, internationalisation was fully expected to build the qualified academic staff with high qualifications, good professional knowledge, and fluency in foreign languages. This expected benefit corresponds to Savishinsky (2012), who asserts that involvement in international travel, teaching, or research programmes has a significant positive influence on the academics' competence and performance. This finding aligns with Teichler (2009), who asserts a number of benefits for faculties who participated in an international programme such as intellectual growth, professional knowledge and skill development or foreign language proficiency.

Analysis of interview data indicated that internationalisation plays an important role in enhancing the University's prestige, which aligns with Knight's view (2013, p. 4). According to



Knight (2013, p. 4), the overall aim of all the international efforts was to achieve a strong worldwide reputation. One participant expected:

The most important motivation for the university to participate in the internationalisation of education is perhaps the desire to build and develop the reputation or prestige of the university worldwide (Interview 8-Bed1).

In their desirability, international activities could help their institution to improve their image to the international community, which is important. This reputation could be in the form of having the best name in teaching, research, or publication (De Wit, 2013)

Regarding economic rationales, participants adhering to this view emphasised meeting the demands of society at national, regional and, global level. For example, one expressed:

In my opinion, the reason that internationalisation is important is because we need to have a product that meets the requirement of the development of our country and the region. Therefore, through internationalisation of higher education, our learning products meet not only domestic human resource demands, but also the regional and global markets... (Interview2- BSc).

In this quotation, academic participants viewed higher education internationalisation as a crucial role in producing the professional workers for the economic growth, which aligns with London (2011). According to London (2011, pp. 2-3), education is viewed as an instrument in Vietnam's economic development. Throughout its short history, Vietnam's university education system has played an important role in meeting the societal needs and to help the country's economic progress and to strengthen national capacities in the face of global competition. Another interview participant claimed:

Internationalisation is the need to meet the demands of society. The actual social need here is to meet the demand of internationalised economic life rather than just within the local or national context. As you can see since the renovation policy in 1986 with the goal of creating a socialist-oriented market economy, there many economic treaties signed between Vietnam and other countries. In addition, there have been many foreign companies and enterprises investing in Vietnam. Therefore, the improvement of the quality of education in order to meet the social demands of the workforce is one of the decisive factors (Interview- 8Bed1).

In this quotation, interview participant signifies the important fact that sustained improvements in living standards require a shift towards the production of higher value-added commodities. Therefore, internationalisation here is expected to improve the higher education system to supply

such skilled workforce. This finding aligns with London, (2011, p. 37), who highlights the important role of foreign-operated tertiary institutions to Vietnamese education system's development. Similarly, other interview participants acknowledged the important role of education as well as its internationalisation in relation to the development of society:

We are in the era of the 21st century, the century of the knowledge economy, thus, the higher education system of a country or a region plays a very important role in the development of the workforce. Internationalisation is especially important because it is the premise for pushing the development of society, creating human capital, improving the intellectual quality (Interview 25-BEd1).

In participants' argument, this perspective appeared to be associated with the direct response to the globalised economy. Participants adhering to this view perceived this rationale as efforts aiming of building human resources for sustainable development in Vietnam. This finding aligns with Larbi and Wangqian (2017), who emphasise that higher educational institutions play an indispensable role in the social and economic development of a country. Another academic leader also noted:

When integrating into the life of international education, the level of Vietnamese higher education has been raised, and since then it would have created the workforce that meets the needs of the international labour market (Interview 8-BEd1).

In this quotation, the participant believed the globalisation of Vietnam's economy and Vietnam's commitments to a wide range of international economic organizations are raising the necessity of internationalisation of higher education. In their argument, internationalisation in higher education can solve the key challenge of higher education institutions regarding graduates equipped with skills needed. This finding aligns with the findings of Huang (2007, p. 423), who identifies that market-oriented mechanisms implies both economic restructuring and changing skills requirements. In addition, another participant echoed this view:

The developed countries have experienced a long historical development of higher education, and then we can learn about this we can save the time for development through utilizing the achievement or learning the experiences from the developed countries (Interview 15-BS1).

In this perspective, the interview participant specified in detail how much benefit that they can achieve through international collaborative relationship with foreign partners. In this argument, by inheriting the advanced scientific transferability from the developed countries, the quality of

their institution will be upgraded, which is important in producing a highly qualified workforce for economic and social development.

Regarding the financial rationale, consistent with the survey result, most of the interviewees believed that revenue generation and financial resource diversification were not significant in their expectation for internationalising their university. One academic leader shared:

Our university would like to promote international cooperation because cooperative relation helps us to attract the international funding of the foreign countries worldwide ... Then, we can receive a very good funding support regarding economics, facilities, finance, or professional development for staff's capacity, etc. (Interview-15Bed1).

This finding aligns with Rizvi & Lingard (2010), who indicate that the value of money or market-based values was not the objective of internationalisation efforts in developing countries. For this case, the most expectation from internationalisation programmes or activities is to upgrade core educational functions of the institution first.

### ***Discussion section***

As discussed in the above section, academic participants from both universities implicitly and explicitly pointed the reasons why their universities should be more internationalised.

First, regarding survey data, the survey findings indicate that there are similarities between University A and University B regarding expected outcomes when they become more internationalised. Specifically, all rationale categories were rated at a high level by survey respondents across the cases, which suggests that internationalisation are expected to create positive impact on the development of both University A and University B. This finding aligns with several scholars and educators (Knight & De Wit 1995; Knight, 2004; Altbach & Knight, 2007), who confirm that internationalisation is a driving motive for change and innovation in higher education. In particular, this process helps to achieve a number of objectives such as knowledge and language attainment, mobility of students and staff, curriculum enhancement and research collaboration desired competencies or economic competitiveness (Knight & De Wit 1995; Knight, 2004; Altbach & Knight, 2007).

In addition to this, comparing four groups by disciplines, respondents in economics rated all of these motivations are at the highest level of importance, while those from education are the lowest at both case-study universities. According to Al-Youssef (2009, p. 111), internationalisation should not be forced and individual departments have different needs and goals towards internationalisation. Therefore, the lowest level of importance of motivations for internationalisation rated by research participants in education compared to those in other disciplines may be explained in association with the parochial nature of education courses that do not need to reflect the increasing interdependence of nations. This finding aligns with Crosling, Edwards and Schroder (2008, p. 110), who acknowledge that teaching strategies and methods for education subjects require lower levels of internationalisation compared with other disciplines such as economics, science and technology or foreign languages.

Further, when looking at the relationship between research participants' international experience and their attitude toward internationalisation motivations, no significant correlation was found, except 'to strengthen high quality of research' ( $r=.18$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and 'to promote national culture and values' ( $r=-.15$ ,  $p<.05$ ). Results from Pearson's correlation coefficients confirmed these interpretations (see section 16 of Appendix 7). In general, both survey and interview data indicate that there is a strong correlation between academics' positive attitudes to the research quality improvement and their study abroad experiences. This finding suggests that academics' high level of study abroad experiences seek a high level of internationalisation in research activities.

In addition, participants at both University A and University B considered promoting internationalisation policies and practices as a compulsory strategy for institutional survival and development. Specifically, participants at University A viewed internationalisation strategies as improving their institution's recognition, reputation and position in the international league table. University B considered internationalisation as necessary not to lag behind in the current globalised and integrative context. The importance of internationalisation in this finding aligns with De Wit (2002, p. 97), who suggests that participation in international research, teaching, service, and institutional networks is important, especially to the developing countries (de Wit, 2002, p. 97). According to De Wit's (2002, p. 98) view, the more international a university is, the better it is.

Moreover, all the items belonging to the academic category were rated higher than economic, social and cultural, political rationales, which indicate that educational benefits were viewed as the most important expectation in the majority of internationalisation programmes. This finding indicates that the dominant motivation of both University A and University B in participating in internationalisation process is for fulfilling the university's mission. The finding concurs with results of 2003, 2005 IAU surveys, in which rationales based on academic considerations for internationalisation were ranked higher than political or economic categories in 300 Asian universities (Knight, 2003a, p. 3). The findings are also consistent with the result of Nguyen 2011 (p. 179). In theoretical perspective, the finding corresponds to the view of De Wit (2002, p. 96) in two aspects. First, according to De Wit (2002, p. 97), internationalisation can strengthen the core structures and activities of an institution. Second, De Wit (2002, p. 96) acknowledges that internationalisation efforts aim to enable the academic community to have the ability to understand, appreciate, and articulate the reality of interdependence among nations and to prepare faculty, staff, and students to function in an international and intercultural context. However, academic motives are clearly identifiable, economic, social, cultural or political objectives are also important in determining the many institutional paths towards internationalisation.

Especially, both interview and survey participants at both case study institutions were found to expect the high importance of internationalisation in helping graduates to be able to work and study internationally. In particular, survey participants at both University A and University B rated this rationale category as one of among the top five. Interview data (Interview 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 12, 25) place great emphasis of internationalisation of higher education on improving graduate quality. The survey and interview finding is consistent with document analysis, in which both University A and B consider graduate quality as the ultimate mission of the university. The finding of this study aligns with a number of authors, who argue that international professional knowledge and social intercultural skills of graduates are increasingly required to meet the globalisation of society, economy and labour markets; therefore, internationalisation of higher education is an essential in providing an adequate preparation for that (Zha, 2003, p. 248; Jeptoo & Razia, 2012, p. 365).

Another rationale worthy of attention is 'to develop strategic partnerships and alliances' in which there is a common expectation regarding establishing the international cooperative

relationship with foreign partners. Both survey and interview data show that strategic alliance is not a strong institutional rationale at both cases. In interview participants' clarification, both case study universities are on a side of importing and possible receivers in transnational partnerships. As an import-oriented type, these two cases tend to seek and accept Western academic norms, conventions, and standards in international collaborative academic programmes. This finding aligns with a number of authors who note about the inequality relationships in the networks of global universities (Montgomery, 2016, p. 70; Marginson, 2014, p. 46). According to Marginson (2014, p. 46), the shape of higher education systems worldwide is being stretched vertically due to the global ranking and this hierarchy influences significantly on partnerships among global universities (Kehm, 2014, p. 102).

However, it is apparent that survey respondents of University A focused on three main rationales: 'to strengthen high quality of research', followed by 'to improve the quality of education' and 'to develop and innovate curriculum', while survey respondents of University B focused on 'education quality improvement', 'brain gain' and 'human resource development'. Results from an independent samples *t* test indicated that the difference between University A and in University B regarding 'to strengthen high quality of research' and 'brain gain' was statistically significant ( $F=6.88$ ,  $p<.01$ ;  $F=.029$ ,  $p<0.05$ , respectively). This discrepancy finding may be explained in association with the difference of between these two cases regarding institutional missions and visions, in which University A aims to develop a Research-Oriented University by 2020, University B oriented towards a major regional university of the Central area and Western Highlands of Vietnam (University A, B website, 2016). Interview participants adhering to this view at University A expected more emphasis on areas of academic research while interview participants at University B mainly expected more supported activities related to teaching areas. These findings correspond to the wide debate of the relevant literature (De Wit & Knight, 1995; Knight, 1997; Zha, 2003), in which internationalisation is considered as a means to an end, with the end being the improvement of the quality of teaching, research and service. According to these authors (De Wit & Knight, 1995; Knight, 1997; Zha, 2003), by enhancing the international dimension to the missions of the institution, there is value added to the quality of educational system as a whole.

Furthermore, there is a contradiction between University A and University B regarding a number of reasons for promoting internationalisation. For example, the empirical data show that

there is a great discrepancy regarding improving international visibility and reputation between University A and University B. Results from an independent samples *t* test confirms this discrepancy ( $F = .021$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (see section 11 of Appendix 7). Survey respondents at University A rated the importance of this category at sixth while academics at University B ranked it thirteenth among the fifteen items. One explanation for this discrepancy is related to the differences of current profile, resources between University A and B. Just comparing these two universities in terms of the number of staff and students, statistics reflect that University A is more than ten times larger than University B.

It is of note that 'to meet Asian and global market demand' was ranked as the lowest by both participants at University A and B. Interesting, this finding is similar to the result of Nguyen (2011, p. 180), who asserts that all three types of Vietnamese universities have paid low attention on the motivation of meeting regional and global economy.

A body of published literature in this field showed the widespread shift of the rationales for internationalisation from an academic and sociocultural one to a revenue-generating motivation due to the driving force of globalisation (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2004). However, documentary analysis, interview, and survey data of this study produced a different picture in which a revenue-generating motivation is not the main aim in all international cooperative transactions. Economic motivation was not found significantly in this study. In addition to this, this study finds that cultural reasons for internationalisation programmes are not very strong at both University A and University B. That would mean the motivation for fulfilling the university's mission is the most dominant one. Both cases have a strong self-awareness in their demand for quality improvement in all the primary functions of their universities, from teaching, research, and service.

Finally, a notable finding is the interrelationship among the rationale dimensions identified within each case. Surprisingly, they are quite similar in value added across all the dimensions. For example, the enhancement of the quality of education, curricula and research is well connected and facilitated each other. It means there is no separation among these three elements when the university comes to internationalisation, particularly at University A. The international cooperation in academic programmes helps to develop collaboration in research. The achievement of scientific research results will enhance the quality development in education activities and programmes. In the interrelation with other rationales, it is not surprising that

developing human resource capacity and improving the quality of students and especially graduates are also rated among the top list. It is because they are the fundamental elements to facilitate teaching and research improvement. The improvement of institutional profile and reputation will, in turn, encourage and facilitate the University to more actively engage in expanding its strategic alliance to integrate into the international community. When the university achieves the high international standard and reputation, it will attract more investment. Therefore, this is an economic motive.



## **Chapter 7. The Implementation of Internationalisation at the Two Higher Education Institutions**

This chapter focuses on how University A and University B have internationalised and how the interpretation of the meaning of internationalisation of higher education links to the practice-based international dimensions.

This section examines the internationalisation practices undertaken at University A and University B through questionnaires. Thus, the respondents were asked to evaluate the level of activeness of fifteen listed programmes and activities that were possibly included in the institution's international policy and strategy.

Furthermore, every interviewee was asked the same question: "What are the main activities and programmes associated with the internationalisation process promoted in your institution?" to identify main internationalisation practices and its operation undertaken at the two universities. The answers to this question concentrated on the current activities or programmes of internationalisation operated at University A and University B. The construction of fifteen internationalisation items was developed from a number of authors (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Knight, 1997, 2004; de Wit, 2002). Drawing on these authors' theoretical framework, the analysis of the findings is synthesised into two dominant dimensions: Internationalisation at Home and Abroad.

Due to the multifaceted features of internationalisation of higher education, some practices are across more than one dimension. An example of this overlap is the international component related to recruitment of international students, which can belong to both categories (Knight, 2011, p. 16; Knight, 2012, p.244). For this study, as international students are related to exchange programmes, therefore, this international element is included in the category of internationalisation abroad. According to the observation of Huang (2007, p. 51), the content of internationalisation has been transited from technical assistance for developing countries by developed countries, to a growing global competition. Therefore, according to the current profile and status of University A and University B presented in Chapter 2, how internationalisation efforts were undertaken will be analysed as follows:

## 7.1 The Implementation of Internationalisation of Higher Education at University A

Regarding quantitative data, the survey questions for this section contained 15 items clustering the dominant theme known as ‘internationalisation programmes’. The respondents were asked to rate these fifteen listed programmes based on a five-point Likert scale as follows: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little, 3 = A moderate amount, 4 = Quite a lot, 5 = A very great deal.

**Table 7.1** Levels of current performance of internationalisation strategies or programmes rated by academics of University A

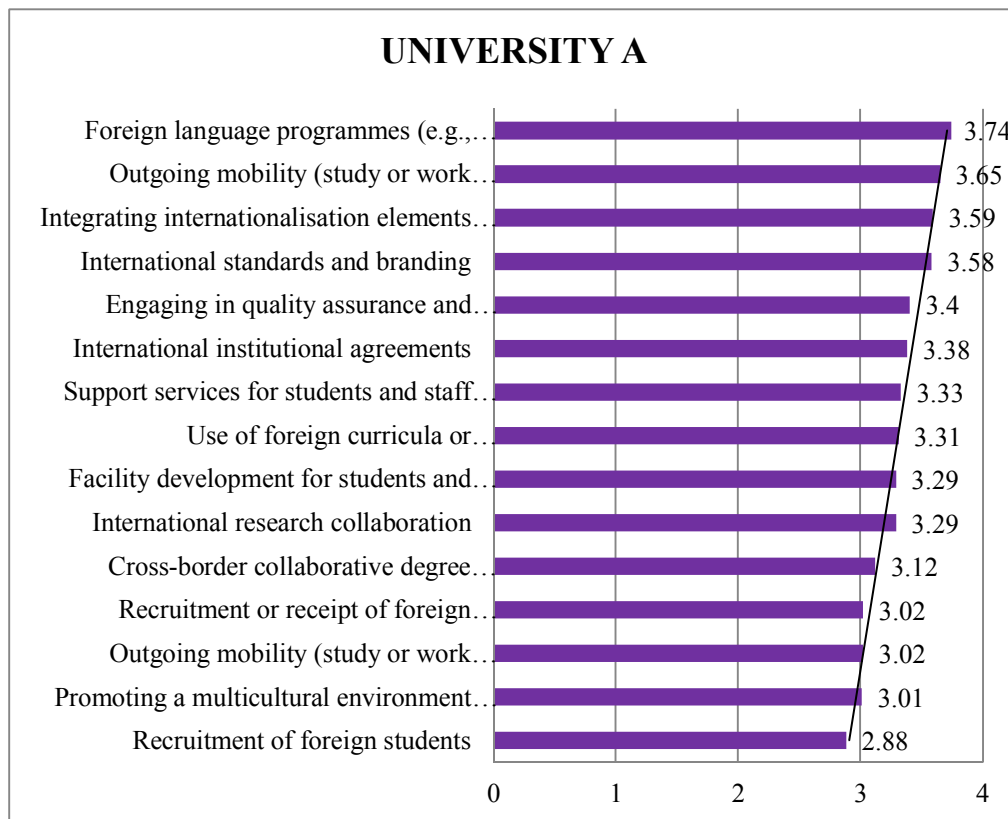
Internationalisation programmes	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	N
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of students	3.02	.88386	.06429	189
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of faculty/staff	3.65	.86588	.06298	189
Recruitment of foreign students	2.88	.93019	.06766	189
Recruitment or receipt of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	3.02	1.00508	.07311	189
International research collaboration	3.29	1.00902	.07340	189
Foreign language programmes (e.g., English) for students	3.74	.88669	.06450	189
Use of foreign curricula or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g., English)	3.31	.94695	.06888	189
Cross-border collaborative degree programmes (joint, twinning, bilingual, advanced degree programmes)	3.12	1.10174	.08014	189
International institutional agreements	3.38	.97460	.07089	189
Promoting a multicultural environment on campus	3.01	.99461	.07235	189
Facility development for students and staff (e.g., dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	3.29	.89024	.06476	189
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	3.33	.89324	.06497	189
International standards and branding	3.58	.86903	.06321	189
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	3.40	.99851	.07263	189
Integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution	3.59	.87348	.06354	189

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

Table 7.1 presents the scores of mean, standard deviation, and standard error for each item clustered into the dominant theme ‘internationalisation programmes’. The first impression from the result is that the mean scores across 15 items are between 3.0 and 4.0 or between the medium and high level (except ‘recruitment of foreign students’ with M = 2.88). The standard deviation values for all elements are around 1.0 (the highest SD = 1.10 and the lowest SD = 0.86) and standard error values just around  $\leq 0.08$  (the highest SE = 0.08 and the lowest SE = 0.06). This

result means that there is a very high consensus of the total population regarding their current practice of internationalisation.

Subsequently, the mean values of the survey results are depicted in another way in Figure 7.1, which makes the difference among the categories of internationalisation activities clearer in a hierarchy.



**Figure 7.1** Current performance of internationalisation strategies and programmes rated by academics of University A (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- Developed by the author of this study.

As depicted in Figure 7.1, ‘foreign language programmes’ is ranked at the top with the highest level of mean 3.74 ( $M = 3.74$ ). ‘Outgoing mobility of staff’ is ranked at the second place with the level of mean 3.65 ( $M = 3.65$ ). The third place is for ‘integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution’ ( $M = 3.59$ ), followed by ‘international standards and branding’ ( $M = 3.58$ ), ‘engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level’ ( $M = 3.40$ ) and ‘international institution agreements/networks’ with the mean ( $M = 3.38$ ). The weighted average value of these items (higher than 3 (medium))

but smaller than 4 (high) reveals that internationalisation dimensions have been already integrated into the document, policy, or strategic plans of the university.

Depending on some factors such as the characteristics of academic departments, the nature of disciplines and the availability of resources, there exists a discrepancy across the institution regarding internationalisation practices. Empirical data shows that some departments were more active than the others. In some departments, internationalisation of higher education was just about the international experiences and knowledge of the lecturers who were graduated or researched from overseas universities. Some departments actively engaged in a series of international collaborative activities and programmes. This finding reveals a wide range of practices in pursuing internationalisation (Hudzik, 2013, p.58). This point is illustrative in comparing four groups of disciplines.

As shown in section 3 of appendix 7, significant differences were found between groups on all of 15 internationalisation programmes. Specifically, regarding ‘outgoing mobility of staff’, the highest mean score for this activity was from the economics participants ( $M = 4.10$ ), followed by those in science and technology ( $M = 3.74$ ), then those in foreign languages ( $M = 3.45$ ) and those in education as being of the smallest mean ( $M = 3.33$ ). In terms of ‘integrating internationalisation elements into official documents’, the mean scores rated by academics in economics ( $M = 3.94$ ), in science and technology ( $M = 3.63$ ), and in foreign languages ( $M = 3.56$ ) are much higher than those from education ( $M = 3.20$ ). In terms of ‘international standards and branding’, all the mean scores rated by respondents in science and technology ( $M = 3.55$ ), foreign languages ( $M = 3.50$ ), and education ( $M = 3.33$ ) are much lower than the responses from economics ( $M = 3.97$ ). The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) confirmed these interpretations as shown in section 3 of Appendix 7. In general, economics respondents scored the highest mean for all of these components, while education respondents rated them with the smallest mean. This finding suggests that the implementation of internationalisation was more developed in the field of economics than in any other disciplines. According to the study of Crosling et al. (2008, p. 112), due to the globalisation of economies and information technology advances, economic study needs to equip potential graduates with the ability to operate in a range of environments.

This finding corresponds to the observation of Leask (2013), who recognise that different disciplines within the same institution vary in their own way toward internationalisation. This

survey result is consistent with the interview data, in which some departments were more active than the others. For example, Vice Director of International Cooperation Department of University A:

The university has multiple academic disciplines, the rates of development will vary depending on types of majors, and that is, it is impossible to make all of these developments at the same speed (Interview 18- AD1).

Interview data were analysed to reveal whether, and to what extent, these linking themes were identified in conjunction with survey data. This following subsection synthesises the segmented activities into two dominant fields: at home or campus-based internationalisation and abroad/cross-border education (Knight, 2004, p. 16; Knight, 2012, p. 244). The features of internationalisation of higher education implementation of the case university were explored in conjunction with existing literature. The findings show that the University implemented a wide range of international activities and programmes. They are now discussed in turn:

### **7.1.1 Internationalisation at home**

Knight (2004, p. 17) defines the term internationalisation at home as internationalisation activities or programmes undertaken on a home campus. Drawing on Knight's (2004, p. 17) proposition, this 'internationalisation at home' section is analysed and synthesised into six dominant themes: (1) communication system for collaboration, (2) internationalisation of the curriculum, (3) international research collaboration, (4) recruitment of foreign faculty staff, (5) extracurricular activities and (6) quality assurance or quality review system.

First, the term communication in this case study refers to a range of academic contacts with foreign institutions and academic peers for the main purpose of maintaining international friendships and preparing for future collaboration (Knight, 1997, p. 17). Early international programmes and communications were not actively launched by the university itself, but by the foreign organisations or foreign higher education institutions. Gradually, the historical formation of internationalisation of higher education has been visualised more clearly year by year in response to the budding process of globalisation. In this regard, the Vice Director of the International Cooperation Department shared:

In 2000, the university started to be interested in international cooperation, however, during this period; we just launched this activity passively. From 2001, we began to have some big internal

development projects to support this trend. For example, we had built two large learning centres for our students to study and conduct scientific research, which was funded by the United States and the East Meets West organisation. Then the university had constructed a sports centre and a support centre for the students, which were sponsored by the international cooperation development project also. In the consecutive period of 2003, 2004, 2005, there was an international cooperative project called 'Capacity Building Development' for lecturers. Consequently, all lecturers of the faculty of English had an opportunity to be trained abroad (Interview 18-AD1).

In maintaining international friendships and preparing for future collaboration, the role of the department of Research and International Cooperation is crucial. One academic leader mentioned about the role of this office:

In charge of all the international cooperative programmes or activities, our university has a department called the Office of Research and International Cooperation. The university has assigned specific responsibilities for this office. These duties are mainly related to establishing networks with leading universities worldwide, for example in the UK, in France, in Australia, or in the United States. Through these cooperative relations, our university will have student or staff exchange programmes with famous universities or invite foreign experts or professors to pay a working visit or help and support us in teaching. The function of this department is to call for funding sources in the forms of materials and books under international collaborative relationships, to renovate the academic programmes of our institution (Interview1- AEc1).

The establishment of this office aligns with Elkin et al. (2008, p. 240), who asserts that most universities have an International Office. The role of this office in this study concurs with the finding of Al Shalabi (2011), who described the main duties of this office worldwide in association with the administration of exchange programmes, establishing new contacts, and setting up joint programmes. The Vice Director of this office also shared more information in terms of this office's responsibility such as providing services for the regular everyday international activities or implementing internationalisation strategies. This finding aligns with Teichler (2009, p. 18), who found that International Offices performed a wide range of activities in developing internationalisation strategies for universities.

Second, internationalisation of the curriculum is well recognised as an important component of internationalisation in higher education (De Wit, 2002, p. 12; Leask, 2013, p. 103). In this case, drawing on the theoretical framework of Knight (1997, p. 15) and Leask (2013, p.103), four aspects of curriculum internationalisation were found and analysed: (1) English is a

compulsory subject for all courses; (2) using English as a language instruction in teaching; (3) curricula using foreign textbooks or curricula in foreign languages; (4) joint degree-level programmes.

Regarding English, the research findings show that at University A, English is studied as a discipline, a subject and a medium of instruction. First, students study English to get a BA, an MA or a doctoral degree in English at the College of Foreign Language Studies of University A. One academic participant stated about these programmes:

Our strength is to provide academic programmes in foreign languages at different levels, especially Doctor, Masters, and Bachelors in English (Interview 13- AF1).

Studying in these programmes, students can become teachers, translators or interpreters either in English linguistics or in English language teaching methodology. In Vietnam, this institution is one of three tertiary institutions, which offer English programmes at both undergraduate and graduate level (Hoang, 2010, p. 12).

Further, English is a compulsory subject applied for all academic programmes or courses at University A as it is a requirement of Vietnamese policy (Hoang, 2010, p. 12). In an undergraduate programme, students study 14/140 credit hours, accounting for 10% of the total credit hours of an undergraduate programme. In a graduate programme, students study 7/50 credit hours, accounting for around 12% of the total credit hours and 3 (self-studied) credit hours in a doctoral programme. At University A, the number of hours or credits for teaching English has been increased in some ways. This point is illustrative of the discussion of one leader academic:

Currently, the university is oriented to reinforce English language competence for the students. The traditional five-year programme only has 14 credits for English language teaching in the whole course. We attempt to enhance English in some academic programmes such as high-quality academic programmes. These programmes increase the credits of studying English from 20 to 25 (Interview 14-ASc1).

In this discussion, students from year one to year three are required to study English as a compulsory subject. This requirement is mainly rooted in a tremendous demand for English language proficiency to support the process of international integration. According to Crystal (1997, as cited in McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008), eighty percent of all information stored in the world's electronic retrieval systems is in English. As Crystal (1997) argued, without a certain

proficiency in English, it is impossible to search for information on the Internet, which has become the main driving force behind this virtual internationalisation.

Besides, English has become the primary language of educational instruction in universities worldwide. Typically, at University A, the majority of joint degree-level programmes have been in partnership with English speaking countries such as the United States or the United Kingdom. In discussions, interview participants reported that the University has been encouraging using two languages in the class or using original English textbooks to improve English capability for the students. One interview respondent, in particular, shared:

Currently, for the high-quality programmes, we teach at least 50% in English, and foreign professors teach at least 20% of the modules. The majority of course books are from English sources, as the Vietnamese materials have not been updated yet. We follow their textbooks, their materials, their content, their syllabus; their teaching methods so that our students can learn in the Western way (Interview 12- AEc1).

Another participant echoed this view:

Currently, the university is oriented to foster English language competence for the students. Thus, the advanced academic programmes are the very first programmes in which the students have been taught entirely 100% in English. Therefore, their English competence is very good when they graduate (Interview 14-ASc1).

In these quotations, it appears that English instruction has gradually become an indispensable part of the internationalisation of the curriculum at University A. The majority of the advanced, joint, high-quality programmes at the University are taught in English. However, depending on the types of academic programmes, English is required at different levels. For high-quality programmes (Interview 12), at least 50 % of the subjects are required to be taught in English. However, in advanced academic programmes (Interview 14), all subjects of these programmes must be taught in English. Further, for these advanced programmes (Interview 5), the whole package of the curriculum was imported from University A's partners in the United States. The Vietnamese government funded these programmes in attempts to promote the English language teaching and learning at higher education level (Hoang, 2010, p. 12). In these discussions (Interview 12, 14, 5), using international textbooks, following the content, syllabus, and teaching methods of the leading world-class universities have been applied in the high quality and joint degree-level programmes. Moreover, the University also encouraged academics to adopt English



textbooks and reference materials in other standard academic programmes of the University (Interview 5).

In terms of joint degree-level programmes, this empirical investigation supports a number of previous studies (Knight, 2004; Teichler, 2004, 2009; van der Wende, 2007), which highlighted the importance and significance of international collaboration in programmes of study. The interview data of this case reveal that most of its colleges set up international relationships with foreign universities, mainly in the area of degree-level programmes:

If talking about the international cooperative activities, the priority is still related to teaching. That is the main mission of the university. Currently, the university has signed the memorandum of cooperation with many universities and research institutes to establish joint degree-level programmes. Those countries have high-quality levels of academic programmes as well as advanced scientific research (Interview 7-ASc1).

In this regard, the majority of interviewees acknowledge that these programmes are the most tangible manifestation of internationalisation at University A. The finding supports a wide range of the published literature regarding this theme (Beelen & Leask, 2011, de Wit, 2012; Leask, 2013; Luxon & Peelo, 2009), which stresses the development and implementation of joint academic programmes as the highest internationalisation level of cooperation between universities. At University A, this is also evidenced by the drastic increase in the number of collaborative degree-level programmes operated since the academic year 2005-2006. All of these collaborative degree-level programmes are imported from their counterparts in developed countries; therefore, this internationalisation dimension is considered as an "at-home" strategy. Up to this point in time, there are two levels of joint degree-level programmes adopted at University A: undergraduate and postgraduate. For example, one academic leaders stated:

Our university had signed MOUs with many universities to establish some joint undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. These programmes are carried out in the framework of co-participating in teaching and conferring degree between the two sides (Interview 7-ASc1).

This view implies that there is a progressing trend in the process of internationalisation related to this demand. These programmes stipulate a jointly developed curriculum and a coordinated process of acknowledging credits. Research findings reveal that University A has established joint degree-level programmes in two main areas: disciplines in the field of Science and

Technology and disciplines in the field of Economics and at two levels. At the undergraduate level:

Regarding the field of science and technology, we have cooperated with some universities in the United States to establish two Advanced Undergraduate Programmes: Electronic and Communication Engineering and Embedded Systems, and with France in Chemical Technology. Regarding the field of economics, we have cooperated with University of Sunderland of the United Kingdom or the Towson University of the United States to set up joint degree programmes in the framework of 2+ 2, or 4+0 (Interview 18- AD1).

At the postgraduate level:

For postgraduate academic programmes, we have cooperated with the National Tsing Hua University of Taiwan and University Nice Sophia Antipolis of France to set up Master in Business Administration. The majority of master's programmes are granted by our foreign partners (Interview 18- AD1).

Third, regarding international collaboration in research, these collaborative activities stem from the fact that a purely teaching and learning area is not an effective solution; it must connect with the research area. To explain why international cooperation should be facilitated simultaneously in both academic programmes and research area with the prestigious universities, one interview respondent explained:

As I said, there are two domain fields necessary for international cooperation: research and teaching. When scientific research has cooperated with other foreign universities, our university has been benefited from their sharing research experience and their expertise. However, to strengthen joint-research collaboration, we also need to have collaborative degree-level programmes as well (Interview 7-ASc1).

The connection between teaching and research in this perception corresponds to national policies related to the strategic development of Vietnamese higher education. Specifically, the Educational Development Strategy for 2006-2020 requires that:

Teaching must be linked with research, application, implementation and technology transfer. Partnership between academic and research institutions and the business sector shall also be formed to solve problems arise out of the labour market and technology market (MOET, 2006).

In this governmental policy, scientific research is one of universities' main duties, aiming at enhancing educational quality and serving socioeconomic development for the region and the whole country. Following the governmental direction, the pursuit of research and knowledge production also becomes an institutional goal of University A. This goal has been constructed and issued in its institutional policies: "Our aim is to develop [University A] into a Research-Oriented University by 2020." Obviously, in University A's specific strategic vision, it is suggested that academics' research engagement needs to be more active to support the university's overall goals. As documented in the criteria for ranking universities in the Vietnamese context, achievement in research is directly linked to its national university ranking (University Website, 2016). The improvement of the University's ranking will, in turn, facilitate the University to obtain more resources for research.

The empirical investigation shows that there are two major activities encouraged by the university's policy: 'hosting international conferences,' and 'publishing international articles,' which are categorised by Knight (2008) as types of research and scholarly activities. According to academic participants' report, organising international conferences was one of the most effective international activities. Participants pertaining to this view reflected diverse types of international seminars and conferences hosted either by the University or by its members. For example, two academic leaders shared:

International conferences are organised a lot. There must be more than two each month (Interview 18-AD1).

Under the sponsor of the national foreign language project 2020, there are many seminars a year, and it can be calculated that every month has one on average. In addition to this, there are various types of co-organising workshops with foreign partners (Interview 13-AF1).

In work written by Arabkheradmand et al., (2015, p. 30), conferences are described as places where researchers aspire to sustain their place at the frontier of knowledge. In these discussions, organising international conferences is emphasised as one of the important international dimensions brought into the functions of University A. It is apparent that research participants were offered regular chances to participate in research workshops or conferences organised by the faculty or by the university. In their discussion, the scope, scale and value of these research workshops or conferences are substantial. Moreover, these research workshops or conferences offer academic participants opportunities to widen their research networks with academics and

research experts from different disciplines worldwide. This point is illustrative in discussion with an academic leader:

Recently we have been organising the fifth conference on School Psychology with the orientation to develop the field of school psychology in Vietnam universities and worldwide. We would like to get experience from international experts about methods, approaches, and contents of programmes of study in the field of counselling psychology at school. In the context of a resource-sharing workshop, we can exchange expertise with foreign experts or we can build a network of sharing the resources in this field all over the world (Interview 4-AEd1).

This quotation is just one typical example illustrative for a wide range and diversity of conferences organised by University A in order to exchange professional knowledge and build up academic social networks. The acknowledgment of the values of conferences in this study echoes findings reported by Cadima, Ojeda, and Monguet (2012), who claim that social community networks play an important role in supporting the co-construction of knowledge and sharing information and resources. As a result, these networks have a substantial impact on the research productivity and research engagement of academics (Santo, Engstrom, Reetz, Schweinle, & Reed, 2009). Through these conferences, interview participants expressed, they set up co-authorship with their foreign counterparts in doing a number of research activities such as international cooperation projects or writing international scientific articles.

According to the policy of MOET, engagement in research was officially a necessary task for Vietnamese university academics. Therefore, publishing articles in international journals has become a common trend among the Vietnamese academic community. With the priority shift from teaching to research among the Vietnamese public higher education institutions, the university encouraged lecturers to publish research papers in international level journals. Interview participants mentioned about their institutional policies relating to research development:

Each year the college has a strategic plan related to a number of international articles in international journals and has a policy to encourage the lecturers to complete the target, for example, depending on the type of international journals or magazines, the university will support 50% or 100% of the fee for the lecturers to publish these articles. Annually, all faculty members must declare their scientific research activities in lecturers' appraisals. The university has issued the

criteria for salary increase, ranking, title conferring relating to the scientific research publication (Interview 1- AEc1).

In this response, the policy encouraging teaching staff to do research was issued in this institution. In raising the amount and quality of their research activities, the University utilises a combination of reward and punishment policies. This finding is aligned with the published literature, asserting that promotion, finance, tenure have a substantial impact on academics' research outcomes (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2012). This reward policy is not just limited to extrinsic motivation such as promotion or finance (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2012), but also contains intrinsic motivation such as improving knowledge or experiences abroad (Hassan, Tymms & Isamil, 2008). One academic leader stated:

Regarding the scientific research, the University also creates favourable conditions for lecturers who studied Ph.D. abroad, after graduation, they can continue to participate in doing teaching and research in those universities. It means that they can continue to work with their supervisors and still further doing some teaching and research abroad if they want. Besides, the University also regularly invites professors from abroad to attend workshops organised by us (Interview 6-ASc1).

Evidently, the university policy offers all the favourable conditions for academics to engage in international research activities. This opportunity is considered as the greatest advantage to academics of University A in comparison with those at other Vietnamese universities. As documented in this institution's evaluation report on research activities in the period of 2010-2015, 189 international articles were published and 96 scientific projects were reported in international conferences.

Fourth, regarding foreign faculty, their recruitment usually happens at the department level: for joint degree programs or foreign language programs. One academic leader stated:

Within the framework of joint programmes, the school has employed many foreign lecturers because these programmes require a compulsory proportion of international lecturers. Also in some majors in Foreign languages studies, it is necessary to have native speakers to help our students in practice. However, for practising foreign languages, we just use the volunteer teams, they come from Korea, Japan, or Thailand, from volunteer organisations or reputable organisations, and they are very highly qualified (Interview 18-AD1).

In this quotation, we can see two primary reasons why University A has to recruit foreign faculty. The first reason is related to one of the requirement of joint degree programmes or high-

quality programmes which need a certain number of high qualified foreign lecturers. The second reason is for helping students to practice foreign language with the native speakers. Another participant shared:

The foreign lecturers who came here are recognised internationally. Thus, we can learn teaching experiences from them. Our lecturers have observed and absorbed their ways of teaching in the class. I mean the foreign lecturers can help our lecturers to improve their teaching methods, expertise, skills, and knowledge (Interview 14-ASc1).

Apparently, these interview participant emphasises the important role of foreign faculty in assisting them to run these joint degree-level programmes in the cooperative framework between University A and its foreign partners. As they expressed, through these joint programmes like this, their teaching methods, expertise, skills, and knowledge would be improved.

Fifth, regarding internationally oriented extracurricular activities, Knight (1997, p. 16) describes this term as an opportunity for domestic and international students to interact with each other. In Knight's (1997) view, these opportunities are especially significant as they can offer the domestic students international experiences via contact with foreign students. Extracurricular activities are also important to international students in helping them to learn about the host country culture and local students. One interview participant noted about these activities:

There are some extracurricular activities for exchanging culture between Vietnamese students and international students, for example, food festivals, art performances, fashion shows. That would be a playground, an opportunity for Vietnamese students and international students to meet and share things together (Interview 9- AEd1).

This view is evidence of a large number of extra-curricular activities organised by University A, which were found on its official website. In these participants' perspectives, these activities are regarded as institutional attempts to foster intercultural understandings between domestic and international students. Through these interactions and exchanges, University A aims at improving mutual understandings, foreign language skills, and soft skills for the students.

Sixth, an educational institution to operate at the international level also needs to be qualified by international academic community standards (Arabkheradmand et al., 2015, p.3). Gaining internationally accepted status requires the establishment of internationally ratified standards at every aspect and level of education. These components include students, faculty, administrative staff, curriculum, syllabi, teaching, research activities, assessment, and required

materials of education such as classrooms, lab or library (Arabkheradmand et al., 2015, p.3). According to Arabkheradmand, et al., (2015, p.3), an internationalised educational institution is demanded to meet the internationally ratified quality criteria. Therefore, in attempts to gain international status and to sustain a high standard of educational quality, one of the significant events of University A is to establish the Centre for Educational Accreditation, which officially opened in 2016:

My university has established the Centre for Education Accreditation to serve the needs of assessment and accreditation of higher education institutions in the Central Highlands and nationwide (Interview 18-AD1).

In discussion with this research participant, this Centre is one of the three Centres in charge of education accreditation under the management of Ministry of Education and Training in Vietnam. According to her clarification, this Centre was officially assigned the task to implement the educational accreditation in 2016. Its responsibilities are not only limited to accrediting educational services but also developing human resources in the field of educational accreditation. Another significant achievement is that University A has become the first regional university in Vietnam, which has all colleges of the University certified for the national standard of educational quality at an institutional level. As one academic leader said:

Recently, the university has completed educational quality accreditation at an institutional level, called external assessment by a Vietnamese independent testing organisation, based on the quality standards set by MOET. This evaluation involved many fields, from the quality of the facilities, the classroom, the library, to the curricula, the lecturers, or the contents of academic programmes, etc.... The university has been recognised to meet that standard (Interview1-AEc1).

This finding aligns with the suggestion of Arabkheradmand et al. (2015, p. 3), who claimed that in launching an international educational agenda, the preliminary step should be taken at the national level at home.

Further, the university has three engineering degree-level programmes accredited and recognised by the Commission des Titres d'Ingenieur and two programmes accredited according to ASEAN University Network- Quality Assurance (AUN-QA) standards (University website, 2016). For the coming years, the strategy was officially published on the University's website:

The performance of educational quality assurance at programme level under AUN standard is defined as one of the strategic objectives for the period 2015 – 2020 (University website, 13 March 2016).

Following this orientation, since then, all the colleges of University A have also been in the process of improving all its academic programmes under AUN-QA standards and preparing accreditation in the next few years. About 15 degree-level programmes are continuing to be reviewed and officially registered for accreditation in 2018/2019 (University News, 3 July 2017). Moreover, in the official document of University A, the mechanism of the internal quality accreditation process for academic programmes was deployed in 2017. That mechanism set the milestone for facilitating the internationalisation of the degree-level programmes across the institution, involving the participation of all institutional stakeholders, such as administrators, managers, staff and students. It is apparent that the University has been aware of the significant role of national and international accreditation at the programme and institutional level. Through these international accreditations, the quality of education programmes is recognised internationally; the reputation and attractiveness of education services are enhanced; and a positive mass media image of high-quality activities of the university is formed, which is in line with literature (OECD, 2008).

#### **7.1.2 Cross-border education/ Internationalisation abroad**

The term cross-border education or internationalisation abroad refers to those activities that happen abroad or across borders. Based on the categorisation of Knight (2004, p. 17), the analysis of interview data is synthesised into two dominant themes: staff mobility and student mobility.

*Mobility programmes (study or work overseas) for faculty/staff.* This dimension of internationalisation of higher education in practice is related to the importance of international qualifications and experience of academic staff. Typically, this includes recruiting Vietnamese staff who have overseas education or experience or funding staff for professional development overseas.

Regarding academic staff recruitment, as the President of University A confirms:

The first criterion to become a faculty member of University A is an excellent degree at a renowned national or international university. Next, they need to obtain a master's and a doctorate degree at foreign universities. Only a few specific disciplines are allowed to be educated domestically. After



they are back to work, they will still continuously conduct collaborative research and teaching with overseas universities (University website, 2016).

Several interviewees acknowledged that University A were focusing more on the outgoing mobility of staff and faculty members rather than that of students. They have been offered many opportunities go abroad for further study or research. The development of this activity was described by one academic participant:

I have been teaching here for a long time, but the mobility of staff has flourished recently. Before the year 2000, the number of lecturers who went to study abroad was very low, just a few. After 2000, although the government implemented 322 programmes, there were still a very small number of people to go abroad for training or doing Ph.D. From 2006 onwards, the 322 project started to flourish then the university had more opportunities to send lecturers for study overseas. Currently, there are many opportunities for lecturers to go abroad for study or doing research. Annually, the university has more than 10 to start their studies or complete their courses from overseas (Interview7-ASc2).

This opportunity became evident in the comment made by another academic leader:

The university also has the policy to encourage lecturers to obtain a PhD. degree from the famous or prestigious universities in the world. The funding source for this activity has come from the 322 or 911 Project of the State's budget. Other sources of scholarships came from foreign partners, or from nongovernmental organisations such as TRIG. There are many types of scholarship for the lecturers, and thus the opportunities offering for the lecturers to further their study abroad are numerous (Interview 18-AD1).

In this discussion, Project 322, 911, and Teaching and Research Innovation Grants (TRIG) for strengthening high-quality human resources in teaching and doing research in Vietnam universities offered numerous opportunities for University A's lecturers to pursue their doctorate overseas. According to the findings reported by Marklein and Nguyen (2016, p. 83), under Project 322, 4,600 lecturers or prospect lecturers studied in 34 developed countries from 2000-2012. Subsequently, from 2010 to 2020, the Vietnamese government promulgated Project 911 with a goal to produce 20,000 Vietnamese lecturers obtaining a doctoral degree overseas (Huynh, 2016). Between 2002 and 2012, Project TRIG with a World Bank loan was implemented to improve the teaching and research capability through short-term courses for

lecturers and researchers in some major universities in Vietnam (Marklein & Nguyen, 2016, p. 83).

Consequently, over a third of the academic staff of University A were educated at famous foreign universities in Australia, UK, US, Canada, New Zealand, France, Singapore, etc. (University website, 2016). This finding is consistent with Knight's (2007) identification about the importance of suitably qualified academic staff to the internationalisation process. Apart from going to foreign countries to study Ph.D. courses, staff also have opportunities to develop their professional skills, knowledge or research experience through other schemes. Those opportunities include working overseas with foreign faculty, attending international conferences and teaching and conducting research overseas. The funding source for international opportunities comes from the budget of the national government, University A, and its foreign partners. As one-interviewee noted:

The university has the short-term and long-term development strategy to enhance the staff's quality, depending on each case and each oriented objective. Some managers were sent to Thailand for short-term training in AUN standards to propagate back to their faculties. The school has a plan for a number of lecturers to study each year abroad (Interview 13 - AF2).

University A has laid great emphasis on faculty investment to enhance their teaching and research capability. It is openly acknowledging that highly successful qualified staff is captured in "overseas training and experiences." By doing so, it has a direct positive impact on the quality of teaching and research of an institution. For example, one interviewee asserted:

The most effective internationalisation activities, in my view, are to send the lecturers to go abroad for furthering their study. Over three to 4 years to be educated abroad, the lecturers have a chance to get access to new textbooks, curricula or updated international scientific knowledge. As a result, their professional expertise and scientific research capacity have been improved a lot. When returning to Vietnam to work, their contributions to the university are very helpful and appreciated (Interview 1-AEc1).

***Mobility opportunities for students (exchange, internship, and work placement).*** The term student mobility is understood as not only the physical mobility of the minority of students, but the intellectual mobility of the majority (Rudzki, 1995, p. 433). Based on Rudzki's (1995, p. 433) model, three of seven components regarding student mobility are available in this case study: the recruitment of overseas students, the existence of exchange programmes, the

availability of overseas work placements, and field trips. According to the relevant literature, student mobility has been considered as a significant international strategy of universities around the world (Kelo, Teichler & Wächter, 2006). Student mobility is usually among the top-ranked important activities in existing studies in the field of internationalisation of higher education (Knight, 2003, 2004).

The empirical data collected for this study, however, show that student mobility is still at an insufficient level. This low number is explained in the sense that higher education institutions from developing are not actively participating in developing global knowledge economy and consequently, they are not able to attract foreign students (Altbach and Knight 2007; de Wit 2013; Knight 2014). Participants at University A pointed out some schemes and projects that offered opportunities for exchanging students between their institution and their foreign partners:

We have student exchange programmes with the Turku University of Applied Sciences in Finland. Another scheme, for example, in the framework of Erasmus plus programme for developing countries, we have student exchange programmes with Metropolitan Universities in the United Kingdom and University Nice Sophia Antipolis in France. We also received their students to attend our high-quality academic programmes taught in English ... (Interview 18 -AD1).

Indeed, in the example of quotation regarding student mobility, it is apparent that the numbers of students participating in exchange programmes are different between the field of studies and the programmes of studies or courses. For example, while the numbers of students participating in exchange programmes in the College of Science and Technology are numerous, all the rest appear to be a very modest quantity. In participants' clarification, this discrepancy is due to a number of factors such as the level of international dimensions of the curriculum, the types of academic programmes, the areas of study. For example, at the School of Economics:

Opportunities to go abroad for the students of the school are very limited, there are just a few students can go abroad for a short term period through student exchange programmes with Japan for example. For the students who enrol in the affiliated academic programmes with foreign universities, for example, the University of Sunderland of England, in the framework of this programme 3+ 1 or 2+ 2, the students are usually likely to go abroad through these programmes, but not many (Interview 1-AEc1).

Another interviewee from the school of Foreign Language Studies:

Opportunities to go abroad for students are not much, mainly concentrating on the Faculties of Japanese, Korean, and Thai. The students of Faculty of English and students in other majors mainly attend in cultural exchange programmes here when the foreign delegation pays a cultural visit to Vietnam (Interview 13- AF2).

In interview participants' argument, for exchange programmes, foreign partners often provided financial support for participants as they have the ability to cover the expenses of both sides. This scheme often resulted in an unequal number between foreign and Vietnamese students participating in these programmes due to the foreign university partners' decision.

Further, University A attempts to increase the number of international students because international student numbers are one of the measurements for international achievement. A culturally diverse student population can enhance the development of international curriculum as the international student population can be considered a source of knowledge, cultural sensibility, richness and diversity (Lee & Rice, 2007; Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011). One research participant adhering to this view noted:

Yes, annually, the university recruits international students from Laos, South Korea, or China. Now the university has a number of Chinese, Laos. Now, the number of Laotian students studying at the university is up to nearly 1000. Usually they have to spend one year to study Vietnamese language at the College of Education. Then, depending on the majors or disciplines they choose, if they choose to study in the fields of economics or business, they will come to our school to study in the same classes with Vietnamese students (Interview1-AEc1).

In this interview, it is apparent that the most numerous foreign students studying in University A came from Lao. From the first course in 2002 to 2017, more than 1,000 Laotian students have been studying in both undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. Others came from China, South Korea, Thailand, French bloc, the United States, Australia, and the United Kingdom. Interview participants shared their agreement on the importance of international student's presence on campus:

When foreign students coming here to study Vietnamese, this would mean the university has not only domestic students but also international students. The availability of foreign students would help to transform the university into a multinational-multicultural learning environment, creating

valuable opportunities for Vietnamese students and international students exchanging language skills and culture (Interview 9-AEd1).

At the faculty of Psychology, for example, American students in a Social Work programme come here to do an internship every year. When they come here to practice, Vietnamese students will have a very good chance to learn from their foreign friends about professional skills (Interview 9-AEd1).

These findings highlight the significant demand for international student recruitment, which is relevant to the work of Harris (2008) and Jiang and Carpenter (2013), University A values international students as offering cultural enrichment rather than sources of fees. In document analysis, the Office of Research and International Cooperation is the main structure in charge of the management of international students regarding education and services in everyday life. It is not just in charge of focusing on students' academic teaching and learning, but also includes a range of support services for them (University A, 2015). This office would affect the international relations with other countries (Yun, 2014). Arguably, internationalisation appears to be integrated into institutional plans, budgets, and quality review systems. The incorporation of the foreign elements of the institutional policy seems to be consistent with academic staff views on the importance of internationalisation for their institution. There is a high commitment from the leadership level to all the academic staff regarding the important contribution of internationalisation of higher education to the development of the university.

Briefly, the status of internationalisation is similar to Arum and Van de Water's 'activity approach' definition, which characterises internationalisation of higher education as "multiple activities, programmes and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation" (Arum & Van de Water, 1992, p. 202). More particularly, the dominant motivation for these efforts focuses on the enhancement of education quality and international reputation and competency. According to the evolutionary model of internationalisation of higher education in the Western context designed by Söderqvist (2002, p.38) and set out in chapter 2, internationalisation of higher education, in this case, is characterised in the middle point between the second and third stages. All these 15 international dimensions, which are categorised into three dominant aspects: communication, cooperation, and academic activity as presented above. All of these international efforts predominantly aim at serving the teaching, learning, research and services functions of the university.

Here, it seems clear that the practice, interpretation, and motivation of internationalisation of higher education are linked together. Both of the perceptions of meaning can also be found in these 15 specific dimensions. This result means that the practice of internationalisation of higher education can affect people's interpretation of the meaning of internationalisation of higher education and the meaning of internationalisation of higher education can help to explain the implementation of internationalisation of higher education. The dominant motivation for these efforts focuses on the enhancement of education quality and international reputation and competency. Compared with other motives, the international practices or efforts in this university further verify that the academic motivation is the dominant rationale in the internationalising progress

## **7.2 The Implementation of Internationalisation of Higher Education at University B**

This section focuses on the internationalisation programmes or activities undertaken or operated at University B. The respondents were asked to rate the levels of current practices of international strategies and programmes as shown in Table 7.2.

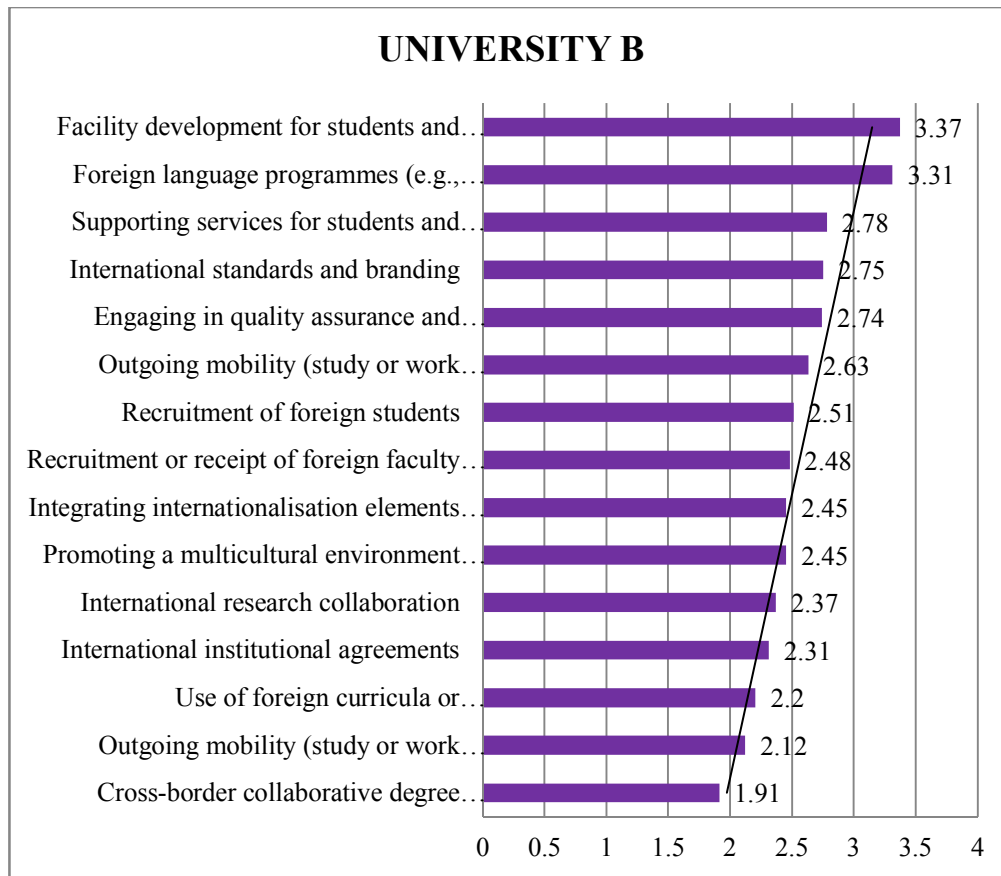
**Table 7.2** Levels of current performance of internationalisation strategies or programmes rated by academics of University B

<b>Internationalisation programmes</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>N</b>
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of students	2.12	.97857	.11376	74
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of staff	2.63	.76882	.08937	74
Recruitment of foreign students	2.51	.86394	.10043	74
Recruitment or receipt of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	2.48	.92519	.10755	74
International research collaboration	2.37	1.04295	.12124	74
Foreign language programmes (e.g., English) for students	3.31	.99210	.11533	74
Use of foreign curricula or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g., English)	2.20	1.03341	.12013	74
Cross-border collaborative degree programmes (joint, twining, bilingual, advanced degree programmes)	1.91	1.19080	.13843	74
International institutional agreements	2.31	.92048	.10700	74
Promoting a multicultural environment on campus	2.45	1.04932	.12198	74
Facility development for students and staff (e.g., dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	3.37	.94655	.11003	74
Support services for students and faculty participating in international activities	2.78	1.13801	.13229	74
International standards and branding	2.75	.99051	.11514	74
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	2.74	.98009	.11393	74
Integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution	2.45	.96783	.11251	74

Source: Developed by the author of this study

As shown in Table 7.2, the summarised results are presented for each internationalisation component, from means, standard deviations, to standard errors and the sample size.

Subsequently, the mean values of the survey results are depicted in another way in Figure 7.2, which indicates the difference among the categories of internationalisation activities clearer in a hierarchy, from the highest to the lowest as follows:



**Figure 7.2** Current performance of internationalisation strategies and programmes rated by academics of University B (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- Developed by the author of this study.

Overall, as presented in Figure 7.2, all the mean values are low across all items, ranging only from 3.37 to 1.91. These very low findings indicate that the international dimension of higher education in practice has just been in the very early stage. As illustrated in Table 7.2 and Figure 7.2, ‘facility development for students and staff (e.g., dormitories, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)’ is ranked first among internationalisation dimensions with the strongest level of the mean ( $M = 3.37$ ). This is followed by ‘foreign language programmes’ ( $M = 3.31$ ), and ‘support services for students and staff taking part in international activities’ ( $M = 2.78$ ) ranked third. It is apparent that all the top three prominent aspects related to internationalisation are facilities, foreign language learning, and educational services. However, according to the findings reported by Ayoubi and Massoud (2007, p. 345), internationalisation strategies must include the main elements such as international teaching programmes, student and staff



exchanges or research activities. The finding of this study reveals that internationalisation of higher education of University B has not encompassed the main elements yet.

Compared to University A, the existing visions, missions, and goals of University B indicate that internationalisation is not considered as a priority. The vision and mission of University B apparently emphasised local and national boundaries (University website, 2017). According to documentary analysis, University B published on the website that internationalisation is one of four pillars of the University's strategy: "...expand international cooperation..." (University Website, 2017), however, the strategic plans in long-term and short-term goals have not been outlined in detail yet.

Further, as depicted in section 4 of appendix 7, across four groups of disciplines, significant differences were found by groups on the current strategies such as 'foreign language programs', 'support services', 'international standards and branding', and 'integrating internationalisation elements into institutional official documents'. In particular, regarding 'foreign language programmes', academics in foreign languages scored this activity with the mean ( $M = 3.81$ ), which is significantly higher than those in education ( $M = 3.18$ ), science and technology ( $M = 3.13$ ), and economics ( $M = 2.80$ ). With regard to 'support services for students and staff participating in international activities', a significant difference was found between the responses from foreign languages ( $M = 3.36$ ) with all others, such as the responses in economics ( $M = 2.60$ ), in science and technology ( $M = 2.53$ ), and in education ( $M = 2.51$ ). In terms of 'integrating internationalisation elements into official documents', the mean scores for this activity by academics in foreign languages ( $M = 2.86$ ) and in science and technology ( $M = 2.66$ ) are much higher than those in economics ( $M = 2.20$ ) and education ( $M = 2.11$ ). The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed these interpretations as shown in section 4 of Appendix 7. In general, foreign languages respondents scored the highest means for all of these internationalisation programmes undertaken at University B, while the lowest mean scores were from those in economics and education. This finding suggests that the implementation of internationalisation was more developed in the field of foreign languages than in any other disciplines.

The analysis of interview data is organised into two dominant fields: Internationalisation at home and abroad/ cross-border education (Knight, 2004, p. 16; Knight, 2012, p. 244).

### **7.2.1 Internationalisation at home**

This section is analysed and synthesised into three dominant themes: (1) communication system for collaboration, (2) internationalisation of curriculum; (3) collaboration in the fields of academic programmes and research. Unlike University A, international elements in recruitment of faculty staff, extracurricular activities or quality assurance have not been developed yet.

In this current context, the term communication involved attempts to establish the collaborative relationship with foreign universities in other countries. Empirical data reveals that internationalisation policies and practices of this case began to get attention in 2007. One academic leader in charge of this field shared:

In fact, the history of the university is short... Mission and vision of our institution have changed since it gained official university status in 2007. That was the year when we signed WTO. That year was also the year that our college was granted university status. We started to initiate international cooperative activities (Interview 15-BEd1).

Similar to University A, University B has established a functional department to initiate, maintain and develop international relationship and international agreements for future collaboration in teaching and research. The role of this department is exemplified in one academic leader's expression:

The management of international cooperation activities is directly assigned to the Office of Scientific Research and International Cooperation. This functional office directly advises the Rector Board on drawing up, developing proposals and promoting programmes or activities related to scientific research and international cooperation. This office acts as a bridge between our university and foreign organisations or overseas individuals (Interview 8-BSc1).

Further, regarding internationalisation of the curriculum, the published literature in this area acknowledges the significance of international curricula to the quality of educational institution at the grassroots level, which referred to academic programmes (Leask, 2013). Within this case, the main areas of internationalisation of "curriculum" are about English as a compulsory subject, English for a specific purpose, the requirement of English outcomes for graduate, using PowerPoint for designing lecture slides in English. These activities were mentioned in the discussions with research participants at University B. As one academic leader stated:

We have also built up English modules according to the European framework including 6 levels. We have also deployed a foreign language project until 2020, we also have the plan for each stage

of this project. In the present time, the priority of this project is English capacity building for students and lecturers. We have now created a widening foreign language environment; i.e., the graduates have to reach level B1, and for all foreign language teachers. We also try to achieve the standard of English competence so that we can integrate and communicate in the global market (Interview 16-BSc1).

Participants adhering to this view mentioned about international study subjects such as English-American literature, Geography or European History, for example.

Internationalisation of curriculum has not been mentioned in our academic programmes yet, only depending on the specialised majors. For example, in the field of Historical Studies, we have two modules: Southeast Asian Studies or History of Europe. In the field of Literature, there is a subject of American literature. These subjects are integrated into the curriculum; however, there are not many international or intercultural elements in other majors ... (Interview 15-BEd1).

For building up a curriculum, one participant explained:

The university's curriculum is developed and updated to meet the requirements and regulations of the MOET. We are updating the AUN guidelines and standards in adjusting our curriculum. We also invited top experts to get the consultancy for developing the curriculum (Interview 2-BSc1).

This quote aligns with Knight (1997, p. 15), who suggests the adaption of foreign international standards through partnership or collaboration in curriculum development programmes. In addition, with the sponsor of non-government organisations, the lecturers of the university have been trained by foreign experts to build up the curriculum based on learning outcomes; however, they still need time to put their theory into practice.

Regarding international cooperative programmes, the practice of these activities were found to be vague in this study. For example, one academic participant claimed:

We do not have any exchange programmes for our students and lecturers. We just signed Memorandum of Understanding with Ubon Ratchathani Rajabhat University (Thailand), the University of Liba of France, Chung-Ang University of Korea, for example. They just came to find opportunities for cooperation, but are not developing yet (Interview 15-BEd1).

In this discussion, the emphasis is on the MOU signed rather than any particular programmes in reality. The number of programmes related to the international dimension of University B is argued to be underdeveloped. International features are not placed front and centre but come across as an afterthought.

In the similar vein, another interview respondent claimed:

The actual internationalisation of higher education, in this case, has not happened yet (Interview 16-BSc1).

In this perspective, internationalisation of higher education is not part of any practical context of University B. Apparently, the case of University B captures a contradictory finding with the literature, concerning the importance of collaborative education, scientific research and other activities in internationalisation of higher education (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Middlehurst, 2002; Teichler, 2009; van der Wende, 2007).

There are many reasons for this. One research participant explained one of them very clearly:

This programme is not feasible because of many reasons, for instance, students cannot be taught in English, the teaching staff are not qualified to participate in these programmes (Interview 15-BEd1).

#### **7.2.2. Internationalisation abroad/ cross-border education**

*Outgoing mobility opportunities (study or work overseas) for faculty/staff.* In this regard, the majority of the lecturers at University B just obtained their highest qualifications from national universities. It is apparent from the qualitative findings that there is only a handful of staff who have an opportunity to pursue their study or undertake research abroad. All those phrases such as ‘academic staff have an international profile; the academic staff has opportunities to engage in international research, individual/group research collaborations with overseas institutions’ do not appear in most of the interview data set. These findings are totally in contrast with the significance of these aspects highlighted by internationalisation of higher education scholars (Maringe, 2009; Crossman & Clarke, 2010). Moreover, the importance of qualified academic staff and their added international experiences in the process of promoting internationalisation of higher education is emphasised in the work of Knight (2007).

*Outgoing mobility opportunities (study, internship, and work placement) for students.* According to Crossman and Clarke (2010), international experience for students such as international placement and exchange programmes is crucial, as this is a very good platform for the students to join in the competitive labour market later. Against this backdrop, this activity is insufficient at University B:

Recently, our university also has worked with the University of Israel in the field of agriculture, and we have worked with recruitment agencies for staff working overseas. That is sending students to a real work environment abroad... now our university has already sent just one a formal student to take part in the internship programme and she is doing Social Work (Interview 2-BSc1).

In this quote, it is apparent that University B has not developed this international component yet. We can see that, so far, only one student had a chance to go abroad for internship, which showed a very modest number. This finding is inconsistent with Jones (2013), who recognises the importance of internationalisation to students and their experiences including cultural awareness and integration.

Regarding recruiting international students, there are just a small number of Laotian students so far. Tuition fees paid for Laotian students have been funded by the provincial committee of Vietnam. Therefore, the significance of international student recruitment to the revenue of the universities is not a finding of this study, which is highlighted in the published literature (Harris, 2008; Jiang & Carpenter, 2013).

In general, although the published research on this field suggests that higher education internationalisation has evolved dramatically and experienced tremendous growth (Yang, 2002; De Wit, 2002, 2013; Zha, 2003; Knight, 1997, 2003, 2008, 2011), internationalisation dimensions in practice were not found to be significant in this study.

### **7.3 Discussion Section**

Since the open-door policy, the opportunities for Vietnamese universities to interact with foreign universities have been widened. In Vietnam, there exist an official national system involving immigration laws, international relation policies, trade, employment, accreditation, encouraging more autonomy, or self-financing of the institutions. The government has a documented national system related to funding, research, teaching programmes, and the general direction of internationalisation at the universities. This policy indicates that internationalisation is set up at the institutional level in both ways: bottom-up and top-down, starting from the institutional level and launched by the national provision.

Internationalisation in the Vietnamese context has practical features. All the funding policies of Vietnamese government for internationalisation aim to facilitate foreign-knowledge or Western expertise into fields, such as industry, agriculture, health and science, and technology, for strengthening the capacity building of the nation (Harman et al., 2010). This

orientation shows high linkages between higher education internationalisation and the modernisation of a more comprehensive body of social, political, economic aspects (Knight, 2004). It implies that the internationalisation activities are selected rather than the subject of random choice.

Higher education institutions worldwide adopt different approaches and strategies towards internationalising their campuses. These differences also reflect their distinct histories, national priorities, motivations, and condition (Knight & De Wit, 1995; Ellingboe, 1998; Altbach, 2004). In the developing world, according to the observation of De Wit (2013), international choices and decisions are not based on a clear strategic plan. The majority of institutions do not have internationalisation embedded in their mission statements (Beelen, 2011). This study reveals similar results regarding the policies, strategies, and initiatives towards international systems of these two universities. In fact, neither university mentions internationalisation in their mission statements.

However, University A has an international vision and a clear short and long-term strategic plan for it. These strategic international dimensions are mentioned in the official documents of the university such as the annual reports, self-evaluation reports, yearly academic plans, and the university's strategic plan 2015-2020. In these documents, internationalisation is about increasing regional and international cooperation (University A's self-evaluation report, 2015; University A's annual report, 2016). However, it still has limitations, as a systematic procedure of quality assurance to measure the progress of these internationalisation programmes does not exist (University website, 2016). At University B, this phenomenon has been perceived to be positive and significant, but it lacks any practical evidence to support that. The empirical finding indicates that the respondents in both interview and survey results acknowledged the vital and necessary role of internationalisation in their university's development, but this is still absent in the practical context. Internationalisation of higher education is a hidden element in the strategic plans of University B. This situation is not unique to these cases as other institutions of higher education in other parts of the world such East Asia, Africa faces similar challenges (Zha 2003; Chan, 2013).

In terms of quantitative data, as seen in Table 7.1, Table 7.2, Figure 7.1, Figure 7.2, the first impression across the whole series of fifteen categories is that all the mean values of University A are much higher than University B. Results from an independent samples *t* test

show that these differences between University A and University B are statistically significant in almost all internationalisation programmes (see section 12 of Appendix 7). These findings indicate that University A is much more active than University B in all aspects of internationalisation practices. For University A, as presented in Table 7.1 and Figure 7.1, the mean values across all categories (except recruitment of foreign students), are  $\geq 3.0$ , which suggests the respondents somehow see that the international dimensions in practice are at a satisfactory level. However, for University B, as presented in Table 7.2 and Figure 7.2, (except facility development and foreign languages with the scores of mean are both higher than 3.0 ( $M=3.37$  and  $M = 3.31$ , respectively), most of the international components are around 2.0 and some activities, for example, ‘cross-border collaborative programmes’ is just around 1.0. This result shows a low level of these activities regarding their visibility or existence in the University's context. The results suggest that University A has implemented various internationalisation activities, while University B, internationalisation practices have just been in the beginning.

Regarding the ranking order, in Figure 7.1 and Figure 7.2, ‘foreign language programmes’ is ranked third for both universities (A and B) with the mean ( $M=3.74$  and  $M=3.31$ ), two other international activities ‘international standards and branding’ ( $M=3.58$ ,  $M = 2.75$ ) and ‘engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level’ ( $M = 3.4$ ,  $M = 2.74$ ) are ranked fourth. However, it is of note that although those two items get the same rank, the mean scores are different. On one hand, the result seems to suggest that both cases are following the directive of the MOET for operating radical reforms in quality assurance to comply with the international standard by 2020 (MOET, 2005).

On the other hand, this variance may be explained in association with the gap between the national policies in general and the practical reality of each case. This discrepancy allows us to highlight the fact that local realities, particular history, culture, pressures, and aspirations have a great impact on the current practices of internationalisation, which is in line with de Wit (2013).

Regarding differences in both ranking order and mean values, a number of internationalisation elements should be noted:

First, the component of ‘integrating internationalisation elements into official documents’ is ranked as one of the top three in University A while this feature is rated at the ninth position at University B. This different result indicates that University A has documented strategic plans for

internationalisation implementation and has promulgated these elements across all the affiliated institutional units via bulletins or university websites. However, this aspect is still very vague at University B. Regarding ‘facility development for students and staff’, the academic respondents at University B rated this component at the top while at University A it takes the ninth position. This result indicates that participants at University B are more satisfactory to their physical and virtual infrastructure than at University A. In addition, ‘outgoing mobility of the staff’ was ranked second ( $M = 3.65$ ) at University A compared to sixth ( $M = 2.63$ ) at University B. This discrepant feature reflects a significant gap not only in the number of people who obtained the highest qualification abroad but also in their capacity of international professional knowledge and skills. In addition, ‘use of foreign curricula or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages’ was rated ( $M = 3.31$ ) at University A but ( $M = 2.20$ ) at University B; ‘international research collaboration’ ( $M=3.29$ ) at University A compared to ( $M = 2.37$ ) at University B; and ‘cross-border collaborative degree programmes’ rated ( $M = 3.12$ ) at University A compared to ( $M=1.91$ ) at University B. Overall, finding reveals there exists a significant discrepancy in all international dimensions in practice between University A and University B.

In addition, the differences in internationalisation practice were found not only between University A and B but among the different disciplines within each institution. For example, at University A, economics respondents scored the highest mean for all of these components, while education respondents rated them with the smallest mean. However, at University B, foreign languages respondents scored the highest means for all of these internationalisation programmes, while the lowest mean scores were from those in economics and education. This gap may be explained in association with the different levels of the internationalisation process in the Vietnamese context. At the recipient stage like University B, internationalisation implementation only concentrated on learning foreign languages and facility development via technical assistance projects from the developed countries. At the evolving stage like University A, to serve technological development and economic growth, the institutional internationalisation activities had a tendency to concentrate on the fields of economics and science and technology rather than education. Specifically, academics in economics expressed the highest level of implementing international programmes among research disciplines. This finding aligns with Bradford, Guzmán, and Trujillo (2017), who identify that although all disciplines are under pressure to respond to globalisation, fields of business and economics experience a higher level



of internationalisation than others. This result may be explained in association with the goals of internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam, which has been considered as a means of integrating the country more deeply into the global economy and enhancing national competitiveness (Tran et al., 2017). The inclined investment policy is a necessary choice in light of environmental pressures, isomorphic forces, and the pool of internal resources and alignment of the internationalisation process with the institution's general strategic plan.

In addition, findings from the study showed that there was a mutual influence and interrelatedness between the international experience of research participants and the institutional internationalisation strategies and programmes. Results from Pearson's correlation coefficients confirmed these interpretations (see section 17 of Appendix 7). In particular, University A's academics had much more international experiences than University B. As illustrated in Appendix 4, while 60.8% (115) of research participants studied abroad over 1 year at University A, only 1.4% (1) of their counterpart at University B did that, which leads to the fact that University A is more well-developed with a broader range of internationalisation programmes than University B. Both survey and interviewee data revealed the fact that internationally mobile academics constituted one of the deciding elements in fostering institutional international presence. This finding is consistent with Bedenlier and Zawacki-Richter (2015), who assert that the international experiences of faculty is crucial in affecting the internationalisation of research, teaching and publication of the university.

To sum up, at the University A, internationalisation programmes were implemented at some extent. Especially there is a correlation between the perceived important level of rationales and the development of internationalisation programmes in practice. As can be seen in section 6.2.2 and 7.1, respondents in economics rated all of these motivations at the highest level of importance, while those from education are the lowest. In terms of internationalisation in practice, economics scored all of these components with the highest mean values, while education respondents rated them with the smallest. This supports literature in the sense that rationales are reflected in the policies and strategies that are developed and finally implemented because they shaped expected outcomes from internationalisation efforts (Knight & de Wit, 1995; Al Shalabi, 2011, p. 20). At University B, these internationalisation efforts are still vague.

More fine-grained analysis of the interview data confirms the survey results about the current internationalisation performance between these two cases. There is still a big gap

regarding quantity, quality, and the developmental stage of internationalisation between these two case studies. This discrepant overall climate of internationalisation practices between University A and University B may be explained in the association with the historical and developmental scale and scope of each case. The finding of this study concurs with Stensaker, Frølich, Gornitzka, and Maassen (2008, p. 10), who found that geography, history, size, tradition and institutional profiles trigger different ways of thinking and developing internationalisation.

According to London (2011), the Chinese, French, the US, Russian and Australian higher education systems have shaped the development of Vietnamese higher education. Therefore, the characteristics of the internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam have been influenced by its history, the demands of its socialism and the trend towards a growing market economy. This character is found in most developing countries with long colonial cultures (Knight, 2004), described as the importing of English language and educational programmes to enhance quality (Huang, 2007). It is of note that internationalisation has been operated in the dominant role of a receiver of knowledge and western models (Yang, 2002). This dimension can be interpreted as strengthening the traditional form of internationalisation activities categorised as 'Internationalisation at Home' (Knight, 2004).

At University A, the research findings show that most types of international activities have been set up and undertaken in association with the functional aspects of the affiliated institutional units. It has produced significant preliminary achievements of internationalisation efforts to some extent such as sending lecturers abroad, internationalisation of the curriculum, research collaboration, and academic programmes accredited meeting international standard and especially improving English language proficiency for students and staff. University A receives good funding support from the national government and non-government organizations abroad or foreign partners. Overall, at University A, internationalisation has been widened in a wide range of activities and programmes. This finding is consistent with Knight (1997, 2003, 2008) and de Wit (2002, 2013), who all signify the importance of these internationalisation activities to the existence and development of higher education institutions.

However, University B, due to all the problems it faces, does not have a strategic internationalisation plan. At University B, the operational milieu of internationalisation is still in its embryonic stage. At this stage, University B is seeking foreign partnerships and improving English proficiency for the students and staff. Other aspects of internationalisation in practice are

vague, and there are no features such as international cooperation in academic programmes, quality accreditation for programmes at the international level. Overall, the research findings reveal that there is no obvious evidence of the development of internationalisation process at University B.

Empirical data reveal that internationalisation practices are not only different between types of the university but also varies within one case. For example, at University A, the fields of science and technology, economics or foreign languages have been internationalised much more than education discipline. This different feature supports Knight (2003), who claims that each critical element of internationalisation is different depending on types of institutions or fields of study. In addition, as the development of internationalisation policies and practices have been in progress, according to participants, this discrepancy is unavoidable. This result aligns with Hudzik (2013, p. 58), who suggests that when promoting a more comprehensive form of internationalisation, success will depend on a manageable sequence of steps, projects, and advancements.

Despite various policies and practice gap between University A and University B, internationalisation of education is a way to bridge the gap between these investigated cases with the developed world (Murphy, 2007, p.198). Research participants in both cases acknowledged that the proliferation of international opportunities and activities could only be blossomed by the mutual interest shared among educational institutions, which aligns with Knight (2004, p.7). The empirical data reveal that both University A and University B are striving for the sustainability of their core business. As documented in official policies of University A and University B, they are both determined to make sure that internationalisation is at least "a modest aim." The significant and steady growth of internationalisation effort both at home and abroad, by University A, signals a promising future. In the meantime, there are barriers, disadvantages, and risks associated with internationalisation that both University A and B have to deal with, those aspects will be presented in the next chapter.

## **Chapter 8. Risks, Challenges and Strategic Priorities of Internationalisation at the Two Higher Education Institutions**

This chapter focuses on the perceived risks, challenges, and priorities associated with internationalisation practices at University A and University B. This chapter focuses on survey and interview participants' data related to what might be possible unintended consequences of internationalisation, challenges related to the international dimension of higher education and strategic priorities in the next few years.

### **8.1 Risks of Higher Education Internationalisation**

#### **8.1.1 Risks of higher education internationalisation at University A**

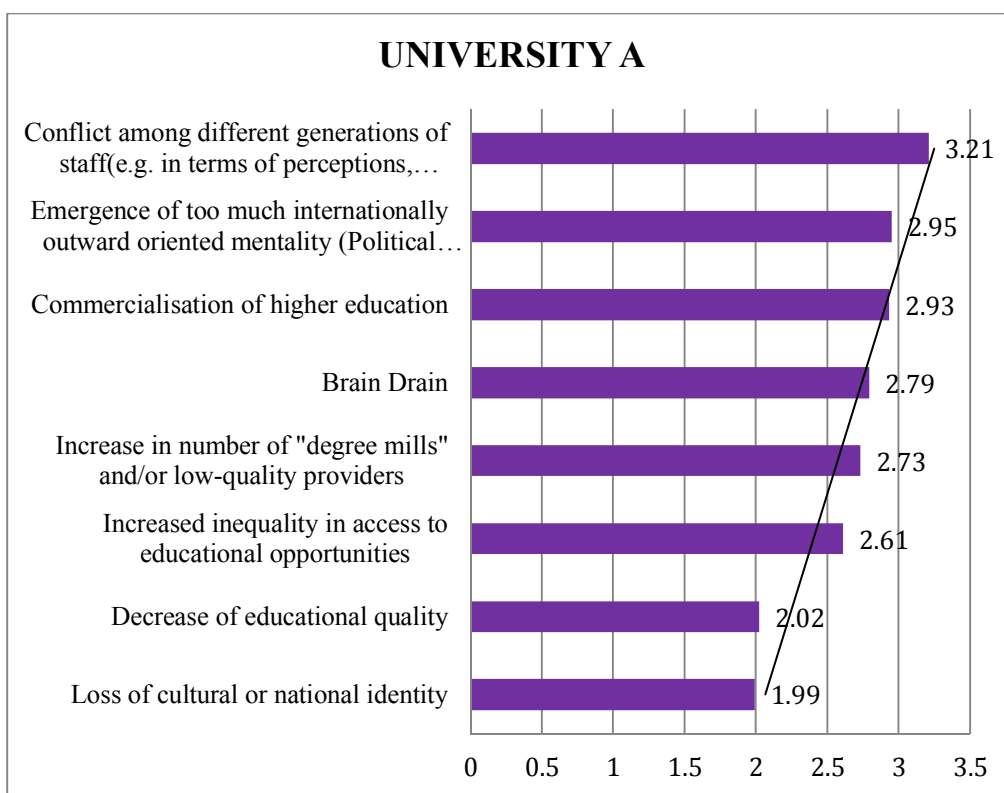
In this section, survey and interview participants' data regarding their perceived risks in developing internationalisation are analysed and discussed. Regarding the questionnaire, the conceptualisation of risks or unintended consequences of internationalisation are described as 'decrease of educational quality', 'the loss of cultural or national identity', 'commercialisation of higher education', 'brain drain', 'inequality in access to educational opportunities', 'degree mills or low-quality providers', 'conflict among different generations of staff', and 'political incongruences/threats'. In assessing the levels of institutional risks in promoting internationalisation at University A, the participants were asked to rate a wide range of possible unintended consequences or risks of internationalisation. The levels of each item range from 1 to 5: 1 = Very Low, 2 = Low, 3 = Average, 4 = High, 5 = Very high, based on a 5-point Likert scale.

**Table 8.1** Institutional risks of internationalisation rated by academics of University A

<b>Institutional risks of higher education internationalisation</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>N</b>
Decrease of educational quality	2.02	.98908	.07194	189
Loss of cultural or national identity	1.99	.97576	.07098	189
Commercialisation of higher education	2.93	1.06501	.07747	189
Brain Drain	2.79	1.09872	.07992	189
Increased inequality in access to educational opportunities	2.61	1.02254	.07438	189
Increase in number of "degree mills" and/or low-quality providers	2.73	1.07989	.07855	189
Conflict among different generations of staff(e.g. in terms of perceptions, cultures, benefits)	3.21	1.09042	.07932	189
Emergence of too much internationally outward oriented mentality (Political incongruences/threats)	2.95	1.00682	.07324	189

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

As shown in Table 8.1, the overall impression of the results is that the level of risks across all the items is not high. It is clear evidently that the highest mean value among these threats is only  $M = 3.21$  and the lowest  $M = 1.99$ . In comparison with the level of rationales in the section 6.2.2, in which the highest mean value is  $M = 4.55$  and the lowest  $M = 3.97$ , this result suggests that academic participants tend to view the expected benefit of internationalisation much higher than the unintended consequence of internationalisation. This result reveals that those academic participants have a very positive or optimistic attitude towards promoting internationalisation strategies at their institution. Especially, results from the quantitative survey show that ‘decrease of educational quality’ is the second lowest threat of internationalisation ( $M = 2.02$ ). This finding indicates that academic participants do not see any problems with quality regarding internationalisation. This result matches with the rationale section in 6.2.2 when ‘improving quality standard’ is ranked in the top rationale for internationalisation. Another way to show the differences among the threat items in a hierarchy is depicted in Figure 8.1.



**Figure 8.1** Institutional risks of internationalisation rated by academics of University A (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- Developed by the author of this study.

As depicted in Figure 8.1, ‘Conflict among different generations of staff’ (M = 3.21), ‘emergence of too much internationally outward oriented mentality’ (M = 2.95) and ‘commercialisation of higher education’ (M = 2.93) are ranked as three highest-rated risks in relation to internationalisation. In addition, it is important to note about the two lowest risks ‘decrease of educational quality’ (M=2.02) and ‘loss of cultural or national identity’ (M=1.99) as being rated by academics at University A in promoting internationalisation further

Further, as shown in section 5 of appendix 7, comparing responses across four groups of disciplines, the quantitative outcomes indicate that survey respondents in foreign languages and in economics tended to rate all of those risks slightly higher than those in science and technology and in education. However, no significant differences were found between groups regarding those risks. For example, regarding ‘conflict among different generations of staff (e.g. in terms of perceptions, cultures, benefits)’, 59% respondents in economics rated this risk as a high level (the mean score M = 3.56), followed by 35.8 % of those in foreign languages (M = 3.20), 38.7 % of those in education (M = 3.06) and 36.2 % of science and technology disciplines (M = 3.07).

Regarding ‘emergence of too much internationally outward oriented mentality’ 33.4% of academics in economics rated this risk as a high level (with the mean scores  $M = 3.07$ , followed by 32.1% of those in foreign languages ( $M=3.05$ ), 31% in science and technology discipline ( $M = 2.77$ ) and 28.2% those in education ( $M = 2.94$ ). The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed these interpretations as shown in section 5 of Appendix 7. In general, it is apparent that participants perceived all the risk factors across disciplines not only similarly, but also at a low level of influence on the internationalisation progress. This finding corresponds to Teichler (2004, p. 6), who acknowledges that “by and large, scholars analysing the internationalisation of higher education tend to share the view that internationalisation opens up more desirable opportunities than it produces dangers”.

Regarding interview data, one factor that needs to be taken into consideration in the process of internationalisation is the conflict among staff regarding professional knowledge or expertise or cultures. According to the interviewees’ report, depending on the places or countries in which teaching staff were being educated or trained, their professional knowledge and experience may lead to different views in teaching theories, models, or pedagogies. An example of this concern is reflected in the view of one academic participant:

In my opinion, the first is the conflict between lecturers' professional ideas due to the perceived knowledge from the different sources, one was educated from this country, and others from other countries (Interview 6-ASc1).

In this concern, the participant viewed the issue of professional knowledge conflict among teaching staff as the highest risk when they emphasised the word “first.” This issue relates more to the campus-based activities rather than the cross-border aspects of internationalisation. In the interview participants’ clarification, this point happens in designing a curriculum or running a course. In their explanation, there remain discrepant views among lecturers and it takes time to agree on what subjects or how many units needed to be included in a new academic program. However, some academic participants have an opposite view of this conflict. They believe this conflict is not an issue as the globalisation of knowledge and the advancement of information and communication technologies have brought about a common academic model worldwide. For example, one academic participant reflects this view:

This conflict is not apparent, because of globalisation, even if they study in any place, the knowledge of administrative management or methods of the research is the same. All countries take

part in this international integration for sharing knowledge and research methods. If the conflict lies in the knowledge of science, it is reasonable (Interview 12-AEc1).

Furthermore, commercialisation of higher education as a negative aspect of internationalisation outcomes has become the key debate of higher education agenda in the twenty-first century (Chorney, 2008, p. 8). The term commercialisation is used to describe the tendencies and practices that create increasing connections between colleges and universities and the economic sector (Chorney, 2008, p. 13). The commercialisation of education is an economic process, driving public educational institutions to operate privately. This negativity is also viewed as a process by which the values of the marketplace replace the traditional education values as a public good, something worthy to be pursued for serving the needs of social development (Chorney, 2008, p. 13). According to the results of the 2005 International Association of Universities survey, 70 per cent of responding institutions from 95 countries believe commercialisation and commodification of education programmes is the highest risk associated with internationalisation (Knight, 2015, p. 8). However, this issue was not found to be significant in this study. Here, it is clear that commercialisation of education only appeared as a small scale regarded as a risk factor as one shared:

The risk of commercialisation of education may be likely in the collaborative degree-level programmes. For example, the minimum number of students for one course is about 25 students. However, there are about 23 meeting the required conditions attending the course; two students still do not meet English language proficiency level. However, we still take all to meet our financial plan (Interview 18-AD1).

The phenomenon ‘brain drain’ is characterised as the migration of educated people from the developing countries to the rich ones and has been a contentious issue in the North-South debate since the 1960s. According to the results of the 2003, 2005 International Association of Universities survey, brain drain was one of the top three risks of internationalisation (Knight, 2015, p. 8). Those findings suggest that the outflow of educated individuals continue to be a complicated issue to be dealt with so far. The result of this study shares this common problem as one academic participant noted:

I think there may be the brain drain. When they take part in the international programmes, they will have more chances to study and work in the foreign universities. If there is no binding mechanism, people tend to work overseas and not return (Interview 11-ASc1).



The next issue is related to ‘the increase in the inequality among students.’ According to Yeravdekar & Tiwari (2016, p.13), internationalisation, generally, is known as an elite concept which carries the risk of inequitable selection. Therefore, this leads to the fact that the objective of internationalisation is against the goal of massification of higher education. The finding of this empirical investigation reveals that interview participants identified this type of risk at a marginal level.

When approaching this, one of the problems currently is the cost, which creates the inequality. For example, some students are very good at learning but do not have enough finance to participate; then these are two big issues (Interview 6-ASc1).

Noticeably, the issue of ‘emerging too much internationally outward oriented mentality’, which is ranked among the top risks according to the survey respondents, does not appear to be problematic in the interview result. For example, one participants stated:

If you talk about that risk...then because I work in the disciplines of science and technology; therefore, all these risks related to cultural, social, and political risks. I do not foresee yet ... in my opinion, I actually like the culture of doing scientific research abroad, the atmosphere of scientific research abroad ...I mean all activities must be in the same rhythm with the western countries. Those advanced countries are very good at science ... (Interview 7-ASc2).

Finally, consistent with the survey findings, interview data reveal that the issues ‘the decrease of education quality’ or ‘loss cultural and identity’ are not problematic in this case. They are rated as low risks.

### **8.1.2 Risks of higher education internationalisation at University B**

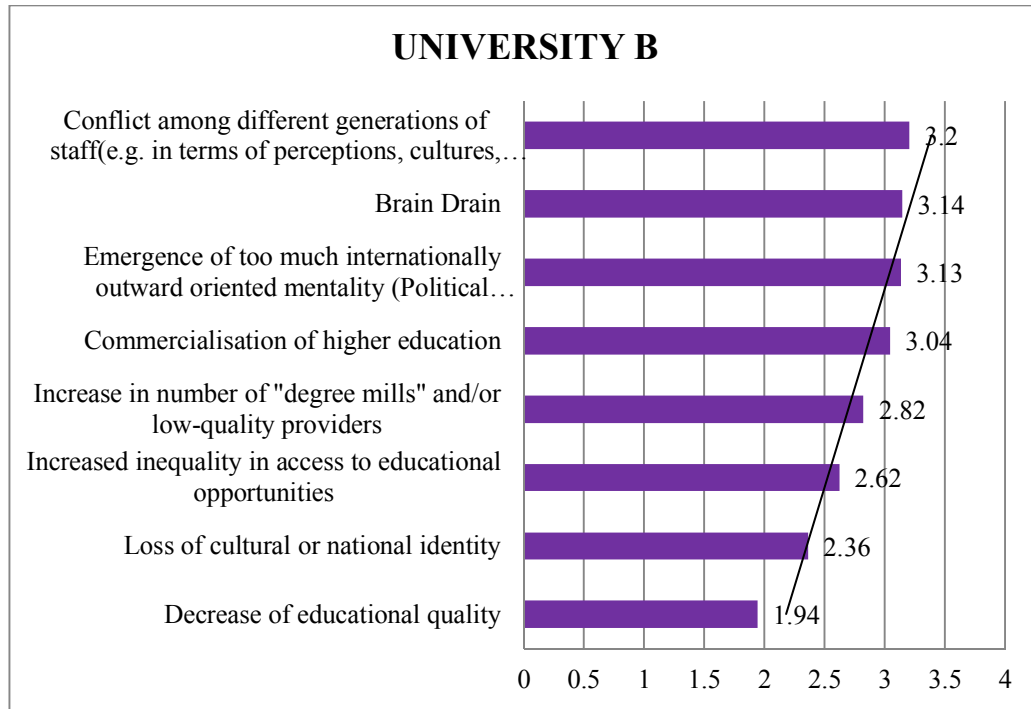
This section focuses on the risks that academics perceived at University B if there is more effort put into developing internationalisation strategies. Regarding the survey questions, similar to survey respondents at University A, academic respondents at University B were asked to indicate the level of risks. This ranging is based on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 to 5: 1 = Very Low, 2 = Low, 3 = Average, 4 = High, 5 = Very high.

**Table 8.2** Institutional risks of internationalisation rated by academics of University B

<b>Institutional risks of higher education internationalisation</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>N</b>
Decrease of educational quality	1.94	.79194	.09206	74
Loss of cultural or national identity	2.36	1.02802	.11951	74
Commercialisation of higher education	3.04	1.10341	.12827	74
Brain Drain	3.14	1.06864	.12423	74
Increased inequality in access to educational opportunities	2.62	1.04295	.12124	74
Increase in number of "degree mills" and/or low-quality providers	2.82	1.17460	.13654	74
Conflict among different generations of staff(e.g. in terms of perceptions, cultures, benefits)	3.20	.96486	.11216	74
Emergence of too much internationally outward oriented mentality (Political incongruences/threats)	3.13	1.10198	.12810	74

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

Overall, as seen in Table 8.2, there is not a much concern for these risks as all items were rated low. The highest score among all the mean values of risks is  $M = 3.20$ , and the lowest is  $M = 1.94$ . When these results are compared to the important level of rationales of internationalisation in the section 6.2.2, the low level of risks suggests that participants believe internationalisation of higher education has a positive impact rather than posing any risks. It is a sign of the quest for University B to be more internationalised as viewed by the academic participants. In addition, the standard deviation values for all elements are around 1.0 (the lowest  $SD = 0.79$ , the highest  $SD = 1.17$ ) and standard error values  $\leq 0.13$  (the lowest  $SE = 0.09$ , the highest  $SE = 0.13$ ). This result means there is a very high consensus of the total population regarding posing risk factors. Another way to make the data clearer is illustrative in Figure 8.2.



**Figure 8.2** Institutional risks of internationalisation rated by academics of University B (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- developed by the author of this study.

In Figure 8.2, results show that the most significant risk for the university is ‘conflict among different generations of staff (e.g. regarding perceptions, cultures, benefits)’ (M=3.20). Following this, ‘brain drain,’ is the second significant risk to University B (M=3.14) and the third one is ‘the emergence of too much internationally outward oriented mentality (Political incongruences/threats)’(M=3.13).

Further, it is of note that ‘loss of cultural or national identity’ and ‘decrease of educational quality’ were not viewed as a problematic issue in developing internationalisation further at University B. Respondents across four disciplines rated these issues just around scale point ‘very low’ and ‘low’ with the mean score M (2.36) for ‘loss of cultural or national identity’ and M (1.94) for ‘decrease of educational quality’.

In particular, as shown in section 6 of Appendix 7, across four groups of disciplines, the first impression is that economics participants scored the highest means for majority of the risks regarding promoting internationalisation, while the lowest mean scores were from those in science and technology. Comparing responses across four groups of disciplines, the quantitative outcomes reveal that a significant difference was found between groups on only ‘conflict among different generations of staff’ and ‘loss of cultural or national identity’. Regarding ‘conflict

among different generations of staff”, while respondents in education, foreign languages, and science and technology shared the same view regarding this risk with the mean scores ( $M=3.29$ ,  $M=3.13$ ,  $M=2.73$ , respectively), respondents in economics rated this risk much higher ( $M=3.80$ ). In terms of ‘loss of cultural or national identity’, participants in economics and science and technology rated this risk just about  $M=1.80$ , which is lower than those in education ( $M=2.44$ ) and foreign languages ( $M=2.90$ ). The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed these interpretations as shown in section 6 of Appendix 7. In general, there is a marked similarity in the perceptions of respondents across all research disciplines on majority of risks, reflecting a relatively high consensus of the academics to internationalisation risk factors.

Interview participants’ data reveal some possible risks that need to be concerned in developing internationalisation further at University B. The first issue needs to be taken into consideration in the process of internationalisation related to ‘brain drain’. This issue was discussed predominantly among interview participants as one of the highest risks. According to interviewees’ explanation, due to the fact that their university is located in a hard economic area, there are still insufficient resources for lecturers to work, teach or do research. This circumstance leads to the fact that when academics have opportunities to go abroad for furthering their studies, they do not have the intention to come back to work. An example of this negative tendency was reflected in one interview participant’s view:

In my opinion, there exists a risk. For example, our colleagues who I worked with our faculty in the past, when they got a scholarship to fund their study abroad, after graduation they have not come back anymore. Therefore, brain drain has happened on a vast scale, you see, we spent a lot in training them, but we do not receive any fruits ... (Interview 23-BEd1).

In this quotation, the problem ‘brain drain’ is considered as a significant loss to the institution in its effort of building highly qualified human resources. Participants adhering to this view believed that due to the University’s rigid incentive scheme and hard life, the institution faced difficulties in retaining faculty and staff with highly qualified expertise and skills, especially those educated in foreign countries.

Another risk arising from internationalisation strategy implementation is the conflict among staff regarding perceptions and cultures. One interviewee mentioned this conflict:

There may be a risk in the conflict between lecturers regarding qualifications and ages. Different generations will have different perspectives, especially regarding expertise (Interview 17-BSc1).

Another issue highlighted in internationalisation process among interview participants' discussion is 'inequality of treatment among students.' In their discussion related to this point, participants indicated that this risk has been derived from the commercial background. An issue emerged in interview participant's argument:

As I think, when we boost international integration, it will create different types of programmes in just one university. Students who enrol in international academic programmes will pay tuition fees higher than the domestic academic programmes; of course, they will enjoy a different value (Interview 15-BEd1).

In this discussion, the key concern is related to the discrepancy in tuition fee policy between different types of degree-level programmes. In some academic participants' beliefs, it would be unfair if all students take the same conditions of learning when they have to pay different fees. However, some academic participants have an opposite view on this issue as it raises the problem of quality of students participating in these courses. In their arguments, it is unfair if these courses only concern the tuition fee matter.

The issue of 'increase in number of "degree mills" or low-quality providers' emerged in the discussions of academic participants. In their arguments, they posed the quality of qualifications of joint programmes. In their belief, the quality standard of these qualifications cannot be compared with those educated and obtained abroad. As one noted:

The production of qualifications with low quality may also be considered. Currently, the foreign universities set up their degree programmes here and then grant foreign degrees for students. However, the whole process of learning is in Vietnam. For instance, Vietnamese lecturers conduct the courses, Vietnamese facilities and Vietnamese contents of the programmes are still dominant (Interview 15-BEd1).

In this quote, there exists the problem of quality of these joint academic programmes as the whole process of learning is run in the Vietnamese context. In their belief, there remains a gap in the learning conditions offering to students between Vietnamese universities and universities in developed countries. These conditions are teaching and learning facilities or faculty staff. In their belief, these conditions also affect the outcomes of the courses.

Another issue such as 'commercialisation of education' considered as the greatest threat in AUI survey in 2005, or 'the loss of cultural identity' regarded as the number-one risk in the Middle East, were not conceivable in this case. For example, one interview participant claimed:

Commercialisation of education at University B is not obvious because it is a public university. As a provincial university, we are managed and controlled directly by the provincial government. Therefore, all the fields regarding financial mechanism must be subjected to the directive of the Provincial People's Committee (interview-BEd8).

In general, on the efforts of developing internationalisation, the analysis of empirical data reveals some unintended consequences participants believe may happen. These factors are 'brain drain,' 'conflict among academics,' 'unequal treatment among students,' 'low quality providers.'

### **8.1.3 Discussion section**

In the combination of both the qualitative and quantitative data, it is telling that academic participants of both University A and University B have positive attitudes towards internationalisation. As shown in Table 8.1, Table 8.2, Figure 8.1, and Figure 8.2, all potential risk issues are at a low level. No significant differences were found between these two universities regarding majority of risks identified, except 'brain drain' and 'loss of national culture and identity' (see section 13 of Appendix 7). Results from an independent sample *t* test confirmed these interpretations. Further, the most concern of interview participants at University A is related to the issue of conflict among different generations of staff while participants at University B worried most about brain drain. This discrepancy may be explained in association with the current condition and status of these two cases. In addition, the issue of loss of cultural identity is considered as the lowest danger of internationalisation for University A while the problem of decrease of educational quality is regarded as the lowest threat of internationalisation for University B. Moreover, the issue of increase in a number of degree mill and inequality in access to educational opportunities are evaluated as not problematic for University A ( $M=2.75$ ;  $M=2.65$ ) and University B ( $M=2.78$ ;  $2.53$ ). It suggests that there is no problem with the quality issues for both these universities. This result matches with the finding of the rationale section in the sense that the primary aim for developing internationalisation focuses on improving educational quality in both institutions.

## **8.2 Obstacles to Implementing Internationalisation**

This section discusses the challenges faced by University A and University B in the quest to implement higher education internationalisation. The findings of this study suggest that challenges to higher education internationalisation take many forms in both university contexts. Research findings identify and analyse the key issues as follows:

### **8.2.1 Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation at University A**

In this section, survey and interview participants' data regarding challenges confronted by University A in the operational process of internationalisation are analysed. Regarding the questionnaires, there are eleven institutional barriers clustered into the theme 'Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation' presented in Table 8.3. In addressing the levels of these obstacles, academic participants were asked to rate each item based on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 5: 1 = Very Low, 2 = Low, 3 = Average, 4 = High, 5 = Very high.

The outcomes of the survey data are depicted in Table 8.3, which contains the value of the mean, standard deviation, and standard error for each item. The first impression from the result is that all the mean scores across 11 items were rather high (the highest  $M = 4.22$  and the lowest  $M = 2.92$ ). The statistical data indicate that the standard deviation values at around 1.0 (the highest  $SD = 1.01$  and the lowest  $SD = 0.79$ ) and standard error values around  $\leq 0.08$  (the highest  $SE = 0.07$  and the lowest  $SE = 0.05$ ). That means there is a very high consensus of the total population regarding these issues.

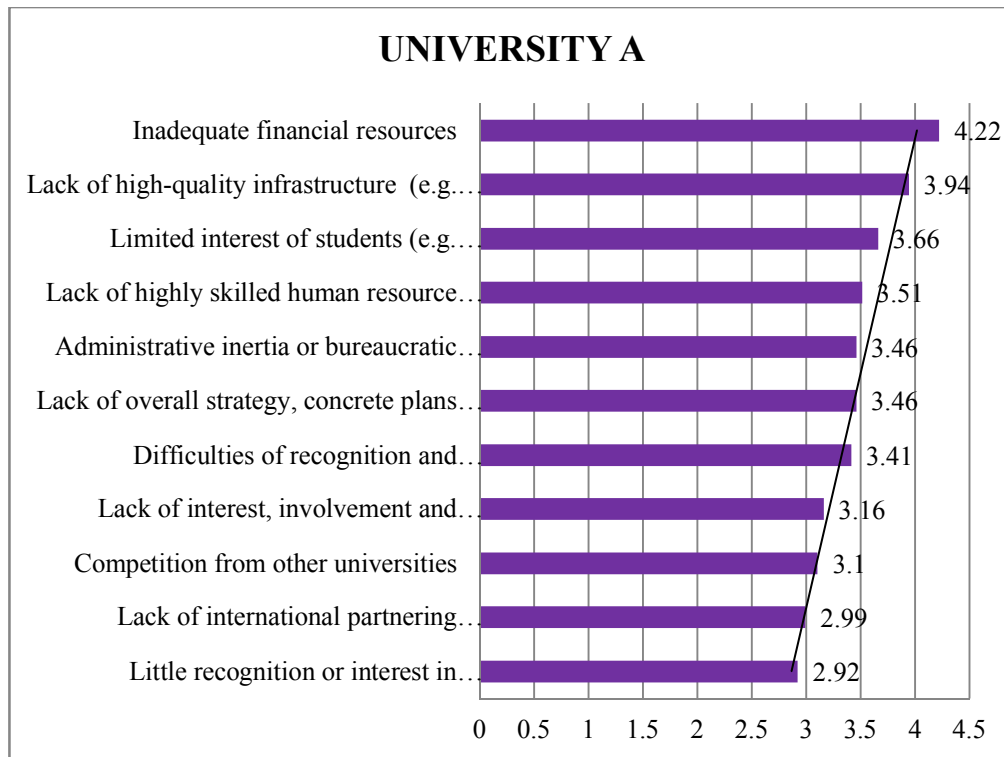
**Table 8.3** Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation at University A as perceived by academics

<b>Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>N</b>
Lack of overall strategy, concrete plans and appropriate mechanism	3.46	.91392	.06648	189
Limited interest of students (e.g. insufficient demand for internationalised programmes)	3.66	.91188	.06633	189
Inadequate financial resources	4.22	.79632	.05792	189
Lack of interest, involvement and concerted efforts of academic staff	3.16	.95069	.06915	189
Lack of highly skilled human resource (experience, skills, expertise, foreign language proficiency)	3.51	1.01901	.07412	189
Difficulties of recognition and equivalence of qualifications or study programmes	3.41	.99994	.07274	189
Lack of high-quality infrastructure (e.g. campus, e-library, dormitory, laboratories)	3.94	.97705	.07107	189
Competition from other universities	3.10	1.01028	.07349	189
Little recognition or interest in internationalisation by senior leaders	2.92	1.01311	.07369	189
Administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties	3.46	.93122	.06774	189
Lack of international partnering opportunities	2.99	1.02883	.07484	189

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

Subsequently, the mean values are depicted in another way in Figure 8.3, which makes the categories of obstacles hindering internationalisation efforts clearer in a hierarchical order.





**Figure 8.3** Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation at University A as perceived by academics (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- Developed by the author of this study.

As demonstrated in Figure 8.3, ‘the inadequate financial resource’ is considered as the primary obstacle to hinder internationalisation efforts with the value of  $M=4.22$ . Another challenge concerns the ‘lack of innovative infrastructure’, which is ranked second with the mean ( $M=3.94$ ). Meanwhile, the lowest results relate to ‘little of recognition or interest by senior leaders or lack of international partnership opportunities’. This finding reveals that there is a high commitment of the leaders in developing internationalisation strategies at University A. This finding aligns with literature, which asserted that insufficient funding source is a significant challenge for institutions to promote internationalisation (Chan, 2013; Knight, 1999; van der Wende, 1997).

Further, as shown in section 7 of Appendix 7, comparisons of four groups on all of the challenges, a significant difference was found between groups on ‘lack of high-quality infrastructure’, ‘administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties’, ‘lack of overall strategy, concrete plans, and appropriate mechanism’, ‘competition from other universities’, ‘lack of international partnering opportunities’, and ‘little recognition or interest in internationalisation by

senior leaders'. Clearly, respondents in science and technology, in foreign languages and in education scored all of these difficulties significantly higher than those in economics. Specifically, in terms of 'lack of high-quality infrastructure', respondents in science and technology (M =4.18), in foreign languages (M=4.01), and in education (M=3.92) scored this difficulty much higher than those in economics (M=3.51). Regarding 'administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties', respondents in science and technology (M=3.60), in foreign languages (3.60) and in education (3.46) rated this difficulty significantly higher than those in economics (3.07). With regard to 'lack of policy, strategy, or concrete plans to facilitate the process', while respondents in foreign languages, education and in science and technology shared a similar view regarding this obstacle with the mean (M=3.62, M=3.53, M=3.53, respectively), those in economics indicated this obstacle as only M=3.07.

The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed this interpretation as shown in section 7 of Appendix 7. These results highlight the fact that academic respondents in economics found less challenges in undertaking internationalisation process than all others. This finding is consistent with the result in the international implementation section (7.1) where economics respondents scored the highest mean for all of internationalisation practices, while education respondents rated them with the smallest mean. Therefore, it can be concluded that academics with less willingness or interest in international practices perceived more obstacles to internationalisation than those with more positive perspectives and possible to engage more in the process of implementing international activities (Daniels, 2013).

According to the results of interview data, the majority of interviewees agree that financial resource is vital to execute internationalisation strategies. Most interviewees found the financial constraints in fulfilling their internationalisation efforts, for example setting up exchange programmes, collaborative degree-level programmes, carrying out research projects, publishing international articles. One interviewees noted:

The difficulty, in my view, is the financial support to foster student and lecturer exchange programmes, to carry out scientific research projects with foreign partners, we also have been supported by the State about these activities, but it is still limited (Interview 11-ASc1).

In this quotation, the insufficient financial source is considered as a significant barrier hindering academics and students involved in international activities. In their explanation, this financial deficiency is due to relying mainly on the funding source from the State budget. As a result, the

inadequacies of funding sources limited all international activities in both teaching and research fields.

In particular, academic participants adhering to this challenge mainly concerned about insufficient funding for doing research. In their report, this obstacle is related to the lack of funding sources from government and academics' low salary. In terms of the government's funding, for example, one interview participant said:

That is about the research funding. In order to be successful in the international integration context, the university must have international publications, and this job needs sponsorship or funding resource. However, I see in the foreign country, the funding source for the research projects is tremendous, not from the university's revenue, but from entrepreneurs or cooperative organisations. In Vietnam, the primary source of funding for this activity comes from the state budget. Thus, it is constrained (Interview 7-ASc2).

In this perception, the implication in participants' discussion is that carrying out collaborative research projects or publishing international articles does not come cheap. These activities require a substantial investment of financial resource. In academic participants' view, it is unaffordable for meeting the cost of carrying out these international collaborative research activities if these activities only rely on research budget allocations from the government. In addition, some participants believed that their salaries are also too low to afford their research expenditure.

The financial support for writing international articles, it is still deficient in comparison with other domestic universities. Publishing international articles costs a lot of money; however, with the current salary of a lecturer, they cannot afford to publish an article in international journals (Interview 9-AEd1).

In this discussion, low salary not only has a negative impact on research production but also teaching or other related professional duties of the academics.

In these examples above, the financial shortage is predominantly discussed among academic participants as the greatest barrier to internationalisation. This shortage is consistent with Knight (1997) and van der Wende (1997), who reported that adequate budgeting for internationalisation is a significant challenge for institutions all over the world, especially for developing countries. In this situation, the respondents called for initial necessary investments and support for internationalisation from other sources to get off the ground. According to them,

the ongoing maintenance of international cooperative programmes is crucial, and this needs investment.

In the interview dataset, lack of innovative infrastructure is another big barrier for University A in promoting the internationalisation process. Some participants were found to believe that their research and published international articles were hindered by the lack of modern and well-equipped facilities. For example, one interview participant complained:

I think the facilities or infrastructure is a big challenge. To carry out scientific research projects, it needs modern equipment or basic infrastructure to produce research results for publication. However, there is a shortage of modern and synchronous equipment and devices. Thus, the result of research does not meet expectation, or it cannot be published ... (Interview 7-ASc2).

Regarding this issue, many faculty participants felt that there was room for much more improvement and modernisation, especially in relation to the database system. In their discussions, they expressed their suffering from the absence of technology-based tools and advanced equipment as this insufficiency hindered their successes in doing scientific research projects or publishing international articles. For example, one academic leader noted:

To be accepted for publishing international articles in the prestigious journals, the most important factor is the database. Currently, the Vietnamese research database system is not synchronized and less reliable, so it is a barrier even if the lecturers have the capability to do scientific research. At present, as a public university, the facilities and physical infrastructure are very poor (Interview 12-AEc1).

In this quotation, it is apparent that the shortage of the library database, equipment, or devices remains at an unsatisfactory high level. Academics believed that no primary functions of their institution such as learning, teaching and research have been equipped with the rich database system and electronic resources yet. One participant expressed:

The library database must be diverse and updated, modern and convenient. The library must ensure to provide sufficient materials to serve the needs of research, teaching, and learning of faculty and students (Interview 20-AEd1).

Further, some participants raised the issues of English proficiency and professional capacity of academic staff as another barrier to internationalisation. They told of current situations whereby

they feel English competence and performance of the lecturers are not sufficient enough. For example, one academic leader complained:

Foreign language proficiency of staff and students, surely, is problematic. In my view, English is considered as one of the most important factors helping our institution to achieve international standards, yet English proficiency of the majority of university staff and students is weak ... (Interview 5-ASc1)

In this participants' discussion, lecturers find difficulties in engaging in international activities such as publishing international articles, doing international collaborative research, or teaching in jointly taught programmes because of their incompetence of English skills. As one interview participant noted:

Currently, it is obvious about the limitation of the lecturers' foreign language capacity, in my view, they are capable of doing scientific research potentially; however, and the difficulty here is that they do not have enough foreign language competence to transfer the research results in English ... (Interview 9-AEd1).

Apart from English language skills, another concern is related to the professional knowledge and capacity of lecturers, according to participants' view, which was regarded as just a good level rather than an excellent level. For example, one interviewee expressed:

The staff's professional capacity is not excellent, good but not truly excellent. The academic staff must be excellent. However, the number of excellent lecturers is insufficient, thus, generally, that is still a matter of professional capacity of lecturers ... (Interview 10-ASc1).

Furthermore, the empirical data pose another challenge, which is related to upper administrative power for paperwork to be approved. In participants' argument, they felt stressful in waiting for receiving their approval from the government authority. They also provided some examples illustrating that this process usually takes a lot of time for the work-related foreign elements to be approved. According to their complaints, there were many document requirements in order to be approved or accredited for operation. This complicated procedure is due to restrictions and strict regulation of the government policy involving foreign elements. For example, two interviewees commented:

The document application process for allowing a collaborative programme to be carried out in our university took a lot of time. This delay is due to the multiple levels of control in the decision-

making process of the Vietnamese government. For example, this programme is just operated in one year, the application procedures could take a few months to be approved, and thus sometimes some opportunities were lost (Interview 4-AEd1).

This finding concerns about the time-consuming procedure for getting a licence to operate foreign activities. Participants adhering to this challenge expressed their discomfort in wasting their time and losing many valuable opportunities.

Interview data identified another issue related to an inappropriate mechanism as one of the barriers to fostering internationalisation strategies at their university. For example, one academic commented:

That is the mechanism as it has created many difficulties in undertaking international cooperative activities ... For example; the publication of one international article in ISI / SCOPUS prestigious journals is only estimated as equivalent to two articles published in the national journals. Thus, it is hard, even just with the investment of English in that article (Interview 7-ASc2).

In this quote, the inappropriate mechanism here refers to the incentive policy in supporting faculty to participate in international activities. According to Taylor (2004), one of the most powerful factors regarding faculty engagement is reward mechanism for doing and writing research. However, in their explanations, their international efforts are not rewarded, valued, or recognised appropriately. This finding aligns with a significant body of research, which asserted that many higher education institutions do not recognise international activities in faculty reward systems or acknowledge the value of faculty involvement in international activities (Ellingboe, 1998; Khorsandi, 2014; Welch, 1997).

Further, criticism towards the limited interest of students was found in the interview dataset. For example, one participant mentioned:

It is difficult to raise tuition fees for students enrolling in our university as they come from the central area where the economic condition is hard ... (Interview9-AEd1)

In this quote, the issue of limited interest of students stems from the high tuition fees of these collaborative international courses. According to interview participants' report, the economic condition of the students' family in this area is unaffordable to pay for these international courses. Therefore, it is difficult for the University to open these courses as one interview participant claimed:

If the tuition fee is high, students cannot afford it. This high level of tuition fee will lead to an insufficient number of students in recruitment for running a course. However, when we do not recruit enough students for the joint-degree course, we cannot continue to consider other elements such as teachers or facilities. Thus, the most important issue for setting up the course is still the financial issue (Interview 9-AEd1).

To explain the reason why the university must set the high tuition fees for these courses, one interviewee explained:

In establishing and developing a joint degree-level programme, it requires many factors such as the curricula, the number of foreign professors taking part in the learning process ... (Interview 6-ASc1).

In this quote, the academic leader clarifies the high tuition fee, which stems from the high expenditure for running these courses. According to the participant's explanation, due to quality assurance policy to these courses, they must meet high mandatory requirements such as recruiting foreign lecturers, original course books, modern equipped facilities, a restricted number of students and quality of teaching staff.

### **8.2.2 Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation at University B**

In this section, survey and interview participants' data related challenges confronted by University B in promoting internationalisation are analysed. Regarding the questionnaire, there are eleven institutional barriers clustered into the theme "obstacles to internationalisation" presented in Table 8.4. In addressing the levels of these obstacles, academic participants were asked to rate the levels of each obstacle on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 to 5: 1 = Very Low, 2 = Low, 3 = Average, 4 = High, 5 = Very high.

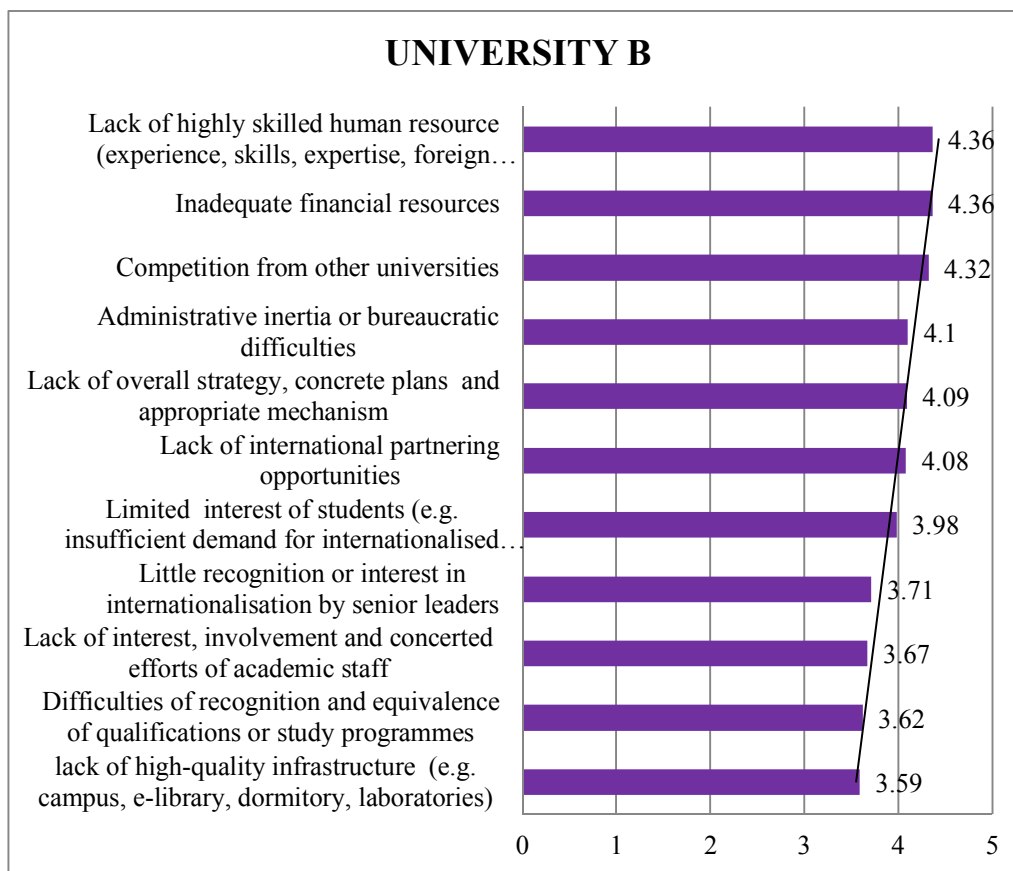
**Table 8.4** Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation at University B as perceived by academics

<b>Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>N</b>
Lack of overall strategy, concrete plans and appropriate mechanism	4.09	1.00912	.11731	74
Limited interest of students (e.g. insufficient demand for internationalised programmes)	3.98	.97212	.11301	74
Inadequate financial resources	4.36	.78643	.09142	74
Lack of interest, involvement and concerted efforts of academic staff	3.67	.95240	.11071	74
Lack of highly skilled human resource (experience, skills, expertise, foreign language proficiency)	4.36	.67386	.07833	74
Difficulties of recognition and equivalence of qualifications or study programmes	3.62	1.06890	.12426	74
Lack of high-quality infrastructure (e.g. campus, e-library, dormitory, laboratories)	3.59	1.10935	.12896	74
Competition from other universities	4.32	.82939	.09642	74
Little recognition or interest in internationalisation by senior leaders	3.71	1.00028	.11628	74
Administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties	4.10	.78631	.09141	74
Lack of international partnering opportunities	4.08	.91796	.10671	74

Source: Source: Developed by the author of this study.

As shown in Figure 8.4, the mean scores are depicted in the hierarchy, which makes the difference among the categories of obstacles clearer.





**Figure 8.4** Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation at University B as perceived by the academics (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- developed by the author of this study.

As depicted in Figure 8.4, the top three challenges are ‘a lack of highly skilled human resource’ (experience, skills, expertise, foreign language proficiency) (M=4.36), ‘inadequate financial resources’ (M=4.36), and ‘competition from other universities’ (M=4.32). The lowest result relates to ‘lack of high-quality infrastructure (e.g., campus, e-library, dormitory, laboratories)’. This finding is consistent with the result in the international implementation section where the infrastructure is the best in comparison with other components of internationalisation process.

In particular, regarding ‘lack of highly skilled human resource’, respondents in economics, education and science and technology rated this difficulty similarly with the mean scores (M=4.60; M=4.44; M=4.40 respectively), while those in foreign languages rated this as a little bit lower (M=4.13).

Further, as shown in section 8 of Appendix 7, to compare four groups on all of the challenges, a significant difference was found between groups on ‘administrative inertia’, ‘lack of overall strategy’, ‘lack of interest of academic staff’, ‘difficulties of recognition of qualifications or study programs’, and ‘little recognition in internationalisation by senior leaders’, and ‘lack of high-quality infrastructure’. In general, respondents in foreign languages scored all of these difficulties significantly lower than those in economics, in education and in science and technology. Specifically, in terms of ‘administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties’, respondents in education (M=4.51), in economics (M=4.10), and science and technology (M =4.06) scored this difficulty much higher than those in foreign languages (M=3.63). Regarding ‘lack of overall strategy, concrete plans, and appropriate mechanism’, respondents in economics (4.80), in education (M=4.25), and in science and technology (M=4.20) rated this difficulty significantly higher than those in foreign languages (3.50). With regard to ‘lack of interest, involvement and concerted efforts of academic staff’, while respondents in education, in economics and in science and technology shared a similar view regarding this difficulty with the mean scores (M=4.14, M=4.0, M=3.86, respectively), those in foreign language just rated this difficulty as only M= 2.81. The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed this interpretation as shown in section 8 of Appendix 7. These results highlight the fact that academic participants in foreign languages found less challenges in undertaking internationalisation process than all others. It is clear that at the initial stage of internationalisation process, academics in foreign language find less challenges than any other disciplines.

This finding is consistent with the result in the international implementation section where the infrastructure was the best in comparison with other components of internationalisation process. Below are challenges emanated from the interview conducted.

Regarding interview data, first, there is an agreement among the participants concerning the lack of professional knowledge, competence and foreign language skills of academic staff in doing internationalisation. The deficit is related to the quality of human resource. For example, one academic participant complained about this issue:

Regarding foreign language, especially English, it must take time, five years, ten years to participate in the international integration. The difficulty in [name of the University], currently, as I said, is the language barrier for internationalisation, as you know, the motivation and the will of all

our lecturers for participating in international integration is so strong. However, their foreign language proficiency is insufficient (Interview 8-BEd1).

In these quotations, the foreign language barrier appears to be a significant obstacle hindering internationalisation engagement. In participants' argument, in attempts to integrate or collaborate with other universities worldwide, there is still a distance between their aspiration and reality. The matter of foreign language needed to be taken into consideration as this limitation hinders academics' efforts in participating in internationalisation. The result of this study aligns with a broader trend across Vietnamese universities (Nguyen et al., 2016, p. 202).

In addition, the lack of professional knowledge and international experiences of teaching staff is another challenges in promoting internationalisation. One academic posed this issue as:

We do not have the world-leading professors, world-leading academics, or the top majors. In fact, when coming to undertake international cooperative activities, there must be equality between the two sides, the second thing is the foreign language proficiency, this matter is still too limited (Interview 15-BEd1).

In fact, the success of an institution's internationalisation efforts is significantly based on the level of faculty capacity and their engagement within the organisation (Lasagabaster, Cots, & Mancho-Barés, 2013). Faculty roles are linked to many of the efforts of internationalisation processes such as curriculum design and development (Ellingboe, 1998; Harari, 1992; Leask, 2013), collaboration and research, (De Wit, 2002; De Wit, 2013; Knight, 2004), interdisciplinary engagement (Knight, 1997; Leask & Bridge, 2013). However, research participants were found to believe that teaching staff are incapable of collaborating with foreign counterparts due to a gap between them regarding international professional capacity and experience.

Further, interview participants' data reveal that the lack of finance is another main challenge hindering the operational process of internationalisation. For example, two academic leader mentioned:

Finance matters in such collaborative programmes of study are also one of the greatest difficulties for the university because the university operates under public financial funding, unlike a private one (Interview 2-BSc1).

In my opinion, the barrier is the social perception of paying the tuition fees for such joint degree-level courses. Indeed, we do not have a real educational output to affirm the prestige of our university in society; it takes a period to have a certain reputation in the public eyes. As you can

see, the economic conditions of the people here are still low. Thus, it would be challenging them to spend a large sum of money to attend such courses (Interview 2-BSc1).

In these quotations, academic participants mentioned two critical problems in setting these joint degree-level courses. They are related to public financial policy and economic conditions of students' families. Participants adhering to this issue believed that relying on the funding source of the State's budget or raising tuition fees is impossible to run these courses. This issue is due to the hard economic condition of the local people here. Further, according to participants' report, lack of funding, financial resources hindered deploying other international activities such as organising international conferences or making formal visitations overseas. These issues are evident in the expression of one academic participant:

Due to the shortage of finance, the number of organising scientific conferences is not many; we do not have many opportunities to visit foreign universities to learn from them. Currently, even the professional development programmes for the academic staff are still restricted because of the financial issues (Interview 25-Bed1).

Furthermore, interview data reveal that the pressure to compete with other universities is another main challenge for University B. In participants' report, the University is surrounded by the major universities, which have been described as high-ranking universities in the Vietnamese league tables. One interview participant raised this challenge:

The university also has to compete with its neighbouring universities (Interview 2-BSc1).

In participants' report, in comparison with neighbouring universities, their institution has a short history of development and its scope, scale, and reputation are still limited. Therefore, regarding attracting talented students or staff to study and work, there is a challenge.

Moreover, interview data reveal that another issue, which is related to inappropriate mechanism or policy in promoting internationalisation. An example of this issue is illustrative in difficulties for setting up international collaborative academic programmes:

The most challenging thing is the policy. If the mechanism is transparent and autonomous, we can efficiently collaborate with a specific university for establishing a joint degree programme; for example, we can spend money to purchase a curriculum from a prestigious university (Interview 2-BSc1).

In this discussion, participant believed that the current policy mechanism hindered their effort in promoting internationalisation. In their explanation, as a public university, the University is managed by the Provincial People's Committee. Therefore, its autonomy is very restricted. This autonomy issue does not support promoting internationalisation. However, in their beliefs, the obstacle in setting up joint degree programmes is one of disadvantages of the University, as they need a model for their current outdated curricula. One academic participant mentioned this issue:

The challenge is to review and update the curricula in alignment with the international standard (Interview 17-BSc1).

Analysis of interview participants' data reveals that facility issue or lack of interest of academic leaders in promoting internationalisation is not the findings of this case.

### **8.2.3 Discussion section**

One significant result is that participants at University A viewed all the difficulties faced by their institution in promoting internationalisation as much lower than their counterparts at University B. In other words, significant differences were found between University A and University B in almost all internationalisation challenges, except “an inadequate financial resource” and “difficulties of recognition and equivalence of qualifications or study programs”. Results from an independent sample *t* test confirmed these interpretations (see section 14 of Appendix 7). Another significant finding is that research participants at both University A and University B evaluated the level of these difficulties as much higher than the foreseen institutional risks. However, when these results are compared to the findings in the rationale section (6.2.2), the level of importance and expected benefits for doing internationalisation are much higher than challenges. This result indicates an optimistic attitude, awareness, and orientation of the academics at both University A and University B towards promoting internationalisation further.

Regarding survey data in Table 8.1, Table 8.2, Figure 8.1 and Figure 8.2, the most significant challenge emanated in both cases is ‘an inadequate financial resource’ with the mean value ( $M=4.22$ ) at University A and ( $M=4.36$ ) at University B. Moreover, this, ‘lack of highly skilled human resource (experience, skills, expertise, foreign language proficiency)’ and ‘administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties’ are among five most significant challenges in two cases with the mean value ( $M=3.51$ ,  $M=3.46$ ) for University A and ( $M=4.36$ ,  $M=4.10$ ) for University B.

However, there is a diversity regarding difficulties in those two cases. While academic participants of University B chose ‘competition from other universities’ as the top three difficulties; University A ranked this item as among the three lowest. This contrast suggests that academic participants of University A felt no problem in competing with other domestic universities nearby while there is a challenge to University B regarding this issue. This result is consistent with document analysis, in which University A was ranked as the top five universities in Vietnamese league table whereas University B did not appear among the top 50 in that ranking system. In addition, “lack of high-quality infrastructure” was regarded as the lowest at University B whereas this issue was ranked second at University A. This result reveals the discrepancy in demanding innovative facilities for teaching and research between the academic participants of University A and University B. In addition, there is a discrepancy regarding ‘lack of international partner opportunities’. Participants at University A find no issue related to this respect as they rated them as the lowest. However, participants at University B viewed these problems at a high level, which shows that University B is struggling in finding their foreign partners for promoting internationalisation.

The interviews confirmed challenges faced by both University A and University B in promoting internationalisation. The interview finding is consistent with survey data where interview participants at both universities admitted that financial constraints hindering their international participation. Participants in both cases believed that this problem limits developing internationalisation policies and practices. At University A, participants stated that this challenge prevented them from fulfilling international collaborative projects or publishing in international journals (Interview 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14). At University B, participants stated that this limitation made them unable to organise international conferences or pay working visits overseas (Interview 2, 25). This finding aligns with Nguyen et al. (2016), who reported that one of the major challenges Vietnamese institutions faced during internationalisation process was the financial issue.

Participants in both cases had similar views about the lack of human resources. At University A, academic participants stated that lack of professional knowledge and foreign language proficiency remained a barrier hindering promoting internationalisation (Interview 5, 9, 10). Participants at University B stated that the academics’ lack of professional knowledge and foreign language skills to the fact that many international collaborative programmes are

incapable of being deployed such as setting joint degree programmes (Interview 3, 8, 24, 15). However, this issue is much more serious at University B than University A.

Furthermore, the interviewees reported on the complicated bureaucratic process at their institutions and beyond (Interview 4, 9, 7) at University A and (Interview 2) at University B. Participants in both cases were found to believe that complicated bureaucratic procedures for getting approval in setting internationalisation programmes took time and discouraged their participation.

In general, these challenges were found to link to each other in certain ways. For example, the insufficient resource of finance and lack of highly qualified academic staff would discourage the academics' interest in participating international programmes or activities. These challenges also put more pressure on both cases in implementing internationalisation process.

### **8.3 Future Prioritised Internationalisation Strategies**

The process of internationalisation involves a series of choices (Leask, 2013, p.110). This section aims to explore the expectations of University A and University B's academics regarding their institution's internationalisation strategies. The conceptualisation of strategies is applied in this study as the planned direction of academic activities and organisational policies (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 17). In achieving a successful and sustainable integration of the international dimension, according to Knight (1997, p. 13), both programme strategies and organisational strategies need to be included in the implementation process. Programme strategies are related to the teaching, learning, and research or supporting activities of the educational organisation both at home and offshore (Knight, 1997, p. 13). The organisational strategies include policies, systems, or supporting infrastructure, which facilitate the international dimensions of an institution. For these cases, the theoretical framework of these two generic strategies proposed by Knight and de Wit (1995, pp. 17-18) was applied for data analysis.

#### **8.3.1 Future prioritised internationalisation strategies at University A**

Survey respondents were asked to rate 16 items regarding both program strategies and organisational strategies for internationalisation in the future. Among of these 16 items, the same list of fifteen internationalisation components was used for rating existing internationalisation programmes and policies undertaken at University A in chapter 7. By doing so, the research would provide a series of suggestions for successful practical implementation in the future. Academic respondents were asked to rate the levels of priority for each internationalisation

strategic program on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = Not a Priority, 2 = Low Priority, 3 = Medium Priority, 4 = High Priority, 5 = Essential.

Table 8.5 presents the scores of the mean, standard deviation, and standard error for each item clustered into the domain theme “strategic programmes for internationalisation”. Among values obtained from sixteen internationalisation strategies, the first impression from the result is that the mean scores across 16 items are high (the highest  $M = 4.56$  and the lowest  $M = 3.66$ ). The estimated standard deviation and standard error of the mean values across the data set are around 0.8 (the highest  $SD = 0.8$  and the lowest  $SD = 0.6$ ) and around 0.06 (the highest  $SE = 0.06$  and the lowest  $SE = 0.04$ ) respectively. The low standard deviations and standard errors of the mean scores indicate that there is a very high consensus among survey respondents regarding what should be promoted further.

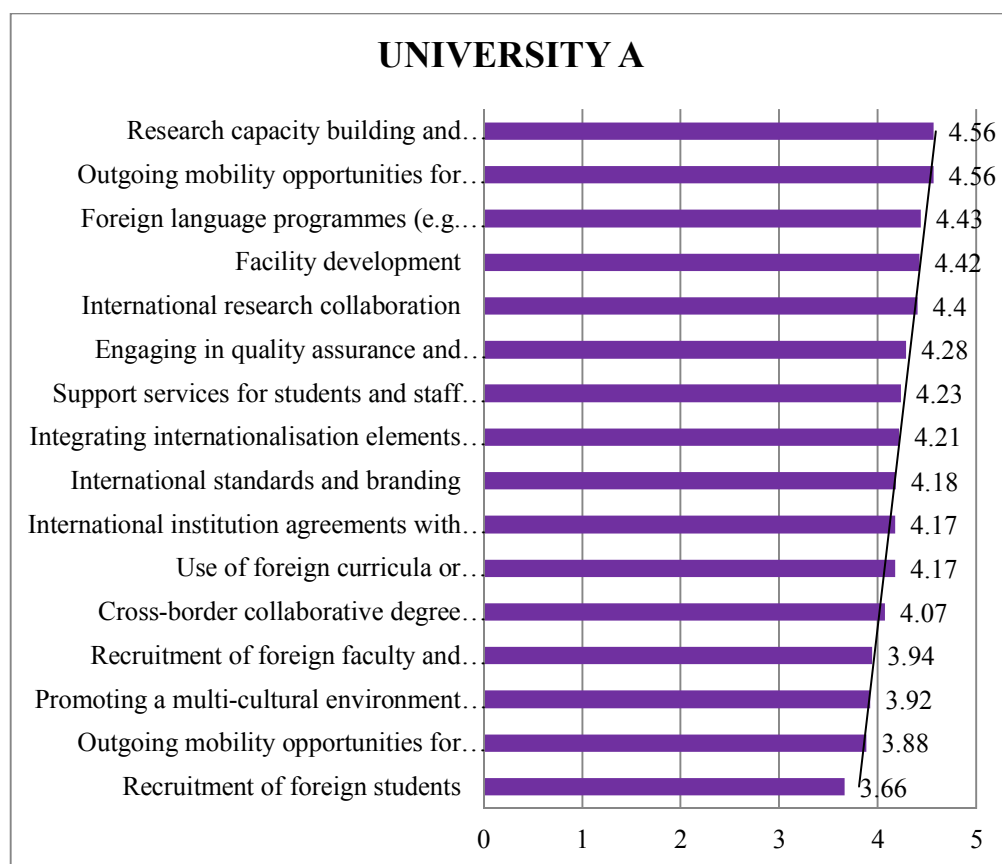


**Table 8.5** Internationalisation activities/elements to be further promoted at University A as perceived by academics

<b>Strategic programmes for internationalisation of higher education</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>N</b>
Outgoing mobility opportunities for students	3.88	.78361	.05700	189
Outgoing mobility opportunities for faculty/staff	4.56	.61259	.04456	189
Recruitment of foreign students	3.66	.84425	.06141	189
Recruitment of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/professors	3.94	.88233	.06418	189
International research collaboration	4.40	.71250	.05183	189
Foreign language programmes (e.g. English) for students	4.43	.70115	.05100	189
Use of foreign curricula or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g. English)	4.17	.68896	.05011	189
Cross-border collaborative degree programmes (joint, twinning, bilingual, advanced degree programmes)	4.07	.73283	.05331	189
International institution agreements with foreign partners	4.17	.71416	.05195	189
Promoting a multi-cultural environment on campus	3.92	.82179	.05978	189
Facility development for students and staff (e.g. dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	4.42	.68528	.04985	189
Integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution	4.21	.72763	.05293	189
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	4.23	.71368	.05191	189
International standards and branding	4.18	.73845	.05371	189
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	4.28	.70925	.05159	189
Research capacity building and professional development	4.56	.62067	.04515	189

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

Subsequently, the mean scores are depicted in the hierarchy, which is shown in Figure 8.5. By doing so, the differences among the categories of internationalisation activities/elements are obvious.



**Figure 8.5** Internationalisation activities/elements to be further promoted at University A as perceived by the academics (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- Developed by the author of this study.

As depicted in Figure 8.5, three most crucial internationalisation strategies in the future are ‘research capacity building and professional development’ (M=4.56), ‘outgoing mobility opportunities for academic staff’ (M=4.56) and, ‘foreign language programmes (e.g., English) for students’ (M=4.43). Importantly, these findings show that the most wanted internationalisation programmes in the coming time are about to invest on professional development and foreign language skills for staff and students to support internationalisation. These findings indicate that the most essential internationalisation programmes in the coming time should be to invest in human resource development and foreign language programmes, especially English for students. This desire is related to the challenges in section 8.2.1, which highlights the problems of qualified teaching staff and foreign language proficiency of students. Further, it is also suggested that University A needs to invest more in facility development

(Mean = 4.42) as this strategy was rated as one of the five most important elements among fifteen listed components.

Further, across four groups of disciplines, significant differences were found between groups on majority of strategies for developing internationalisation further. Specifically, for example, in terms of ‘outgoing mobility opportunities for academic staff’, respondents in science and technology scored this strategic program with the mean ( $M = 4.36$ ), which is significantly lower than those in economics ( $M=4.79$ ), education ( $M=4.61$ ), and foreign languages ( $M=4.56$ ). Regarding ‘foreign language programmes for students’, again, respondents in science and technology scored this internationalisation strategy with the mean ( $M=4.24$ ), which is significantly lower than those in economics ( $M=69$ ), foreign languages ( $M=4.45$ ), education ( $M=4.43$ ). With regard to ‘facility development’, while respondents in economics ( $M=4.58$ ) and foreign languages ( $M=4.56$ ) shared a similar view regarding this strategy, those in education ( $M=4.28$ ) and in science and technology ( $M=4.29$ ) scored this strategy as a lower level. In general, respondents in economics and foreign languages scored all of these internationalisation strategic programmes significantly higher than those in education and science and technology. This finding suggests that academic respondents in economics and foreign languages expected more internationalised programmes in the coming time than those in education and science and technology. The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed these interpretation as shown in section 9 of Appendix 7. It is of note that respondents in economics found less challenges in undertaking internationalisation programmes than all others (section 8.2.1). Therefore, it can be concluded that less challenges became one of the most important factors to facilitate people to promote internationalisation strategies further.

Interview data provide detailed explanations for these essential programmes and activities to be paid more attention and enhancement. According to the empirical investigation, at the time of writing, a variety of institutional agreements and international activities are in place and developing further. In understanding how academics suggested to broaden internationalisation strategies or programmes for the next five years, we must consider their institutional vision first. In the University’s website, the prominent target is to become one of the leading universities in Southeast Asia in 2020. One interview participant mentioned this vision:

The vision of the University is to become one of the top Vietnamese universities, and by 2020 to become one of the leading universities in the South-East Asia region. That is the goal and the chosen development of our university (Interview 6-ASc1).

Apparently, the vision of University A has focused on the international level, particular here is the regional level. In the light of this vision, the results of interview data are consistent with survey data, which reveals the fact that this institution is trying hard to establish agreements and collaborations with regional, international and even intercontinental universities. What a strong emphasis is still an effective policy that has a very detailed strategic plan for internationalisation development. In their opinion, this policy must encompass an alignment between internationalisation objectives and the needs for University A to respond to the challenges and opportunities associated with the process of globalisation and regional integration. One interviewee claimed, "Policies should be more specific and supportive of international cooperative activities" (Interview 21-ASc1). This aligns with de Wit (2002, p. 113), who suggested that internationalisation needs to be policed and planned in the culture and organisation process of the institution to guarantee successful and sustainable development. Further, participants adhering to this view discussed the necessity of how to ensure the memorandum of understanding (MOU) signed become useful in practice. One interview participant suggested:

Signing or not signing MOU does not matter, the question here is how we implement the commitment in that MOU signed, how to put the MOU into the reality, thus from the leaders to the staff, there must be a concrete step and action. To do this, we must have a particular programme and a financial budget for conducting scientific research, exchange programmes; they come to us, we must go to them, we must send a funding amount to the foreign partners to co authorship in research scientific topics, then the MOU signed will be more effective ... (Interview 12-AEc1).

In this quotation, the main implication related to MOU signed is that the quantity of bilateral or multilateral educational agreements is substantial but many of which are still on paper-based arrangements. This finding aligns with Knight (2004), who observed that there exists a number of institutions which cannot support a large number of agreements, many of which are inactive. Therefore, in order to develop international partnerships on a basis of true equality and fostering mutual understanding, according to this participant's suggestion, there are four key attentions needed to be focused. This process would be: First, choose proper foreign partners that are strong

in the required fields; next, draw a detail strategic plan for international collaborative strategies and how to operate them; then, assign or allocate a budget to these priorities, and finally, distribute the budget to those partners to execute signed agreements or contracts. Central to all of these steps is about not developing internationalisation strategies in the way of an end into itself but a means of achieving academic, scientific, economic, technological, or cultural objectives. This continual improvement procedure aligns with the model of Rudzki (1995, p. 25), which is classified as the pro-active model of internationalisation with three key stages for a strategic decision to be made: analysis, choice, implementation of plan or objectives. According to the conclusion of Rudzki (1995, p. 25), this model of internationalisation is driven by financial imperatives and incentives; therefore, available financial resources are important. According to the findings in the obstacle section (8.2.1), the financial shortage and bureaucracy mechanism are regarded as the greatest challenges as this institution is most guided by national regulatory and funding framework. Therefore, to promote the internationalisation process based on the actual circumstance of University A, another academic leader suggested:

I think simply, if the university would like to internationalise, they should choose majors that are strong, not all, just choose some disciplines, in which the staff must be highly qualified and meet all the requirements of international criteria. It means through these international cooperative programmes, we initially set up a standardised level and reputation for the university first. Internationalisation should not be done on a massive scale. I mean, internationalisation should not be carried out in all fields at the same time with the same speed, there should create a significant focus, a prominent field, just an elite, not all (Interview 5-AEd1).

In this quote, the academic participant believed that an accurate diagnosis is a key step in forming an essential internationalisation strategy. In this perspective, it is useful to carry out a SWOT analysis to identify the university's strengths and weaknesses to set institutional priorities for internationalisation. Interview participants pertaining to this view suggested that strong fields chosen for internationalisation should have highly qualified teaching staff. This finding aligns with De Wit (2002, p.113), who emphasised that not many higher education institutions have a strategy covering all or most of the internationalisation activities or programmes proposed by him. According to De Wit's (2002, p. 113) suggestion, it is crucial that institutions need to identify their priorities and how these can be integrated into the strategic plan of the institution.

In general, the basic implication of this participant's view is that there needs to be both sufficient complementarity and sufficient compatibility between the two involved parties.

Further, interview participants stress another crucial internationalisation strategy, which is considered as a decisive factor to enhance the University's performance and status as a whole. This is related to developing programmes of study in compliance with international and regional standards. Participants adhering to this view suggested two ways for innovating their curricula under internationalisation: seeking accreditation from international organisation and developing jointly taught programmes.

Firstly, according to these participants' view, the development of the quality assurance process for all academic programmes is the primary task and taking place currently. This finding is consistent with official documents and University's website, where these activities have been highlighted with a considerable amount of information. It is evident that, according to document analysis, all the colleges belonging to the University are continuing reviewing and officially registering accreditation plans, in which 15 degree-level programmes are ready for accrediting in 2018 and 2019. For example, participants adhering to this view talked about specific disciplines that will be accredited in 2018:

A number of academic programmes have been developed in alignment with the international standard, called the AUN-QA Criteria, for example, curricula in Mathematics, Physics, or Chemistry (Interview 20-AEd1).

To complete all the academic programmes, one interviewee stated:

That is a long roadmap for the development of academic programmes reaching the Southeast Asia standards. (Interview 12- AEc1).

The core of this argument here is that bringing all the academic programmes of University A up to international or regional standard is not an easy job. This development takes time and investment (Knight, 2008, 2012, 2013a; Hudzik, 2013, 2014). In general, participants adhering to this view considered quality assurance and accreditation as strategies not only for academic improvement purposes but also for international standard and status.

Secondly, interview participants were found to believe that the best and effective way to upgrade the academic programmes to meet those purposes is to have joint degree programmes with prestigious universities, which aligns with a number of scholars (Knight & De Wit,

1995; Knight, 1999; De Wit, 2002; Knight, 2012a; Leask, 2013). These suggestions are illustrative of the expression of two interview participants:

International cooperation in jointly taught programmes should be promoted first. However, these programmes must cooperate with the prestigious universities. It is because not only the quality of these programmes themselves but also the international experience of building up curricula and teaching methods. I mean, we can gain international knowledge and experience through exchanging curricula, contents and methods with these universities during the cooperative period undertaken (Interview 7-ASc1).

The first point is to build international collaborative programmes or exchange programmes with foreign universities. In these programmes, students can study two years in our university and two years in the foreign universities through transferring credits between our university and foreign universities. That would mean international students could study in Vietnam as well. With this strategic plan, we would like to become a member of a world University community (Interview 12-AEc1).

These interview participants adhering to this view are representatives of each field of the University. In these discussions, the expected outcomes for setting up jointly taught programmes are considerable and various. In the field of science and technology, the expectation is to gain the international expertise and experience. In the field of economics, the desirable outcomes are related to reinforcing the mobility of students. In the combination of these views, setting up joint degree-level programmes is expected to be further developed at University A. According to Chalapati et al. (2015), for the Vietnamese context, a university's curriculum ideally embraces and sustains national or local values and knowledge systems, while at the same time incorporates the best and most appropriate international knowledge. Chalapati et al.'s (2015) idea is reflected in the argument of one academic leader, who comes from the field of education.

Obviously, collaborative degree-level programmes in the field of Biological Sciences are necessary to be established as the current scientific trend is focusing on biotechnology. In Social Sciences and Humanities, Vietnamese Language, Culture Studies, or Vietnamese Studies are the majors needing international cooperation because the foreigners have the demand to know about Vietnamese culture or Vietnamese language as based on their demands, we can cooperate with them in these disciplines (Interview 9-AEd1).

This participant provided in details which academic programmes or specific disciplines would be able of adopting joint degree programmes. In this academic participant's opinion, there are two disciplines needing jointly taught programmes with prestigious universities in the world. These fields of study are related to Biological Science and Culture Studies or Vietnamese Studies. In this participant's explanation, Biological Science necessitates to have a jointly taught programme in order to import innovative technology from the developed world for upgrading this field of study. Vietnamese culture is needed to introduce worldwide for national identity promotion. These findings align with Knight (2008, 2012), who suggested that, depending on the demand of each area, the University has an appropriate solution for developing their academic programmes. In general, the findings reveal that such jointly taught programmes have been justified to be successful in their contribution to the upgrade of the academic programmes of University A and show a strong push forward to have more.

Further, one of the critical factors to guarantee the sustainability and success of these collaborative programmes is the quality of staff and students (Taylor, 2004; De Wit, 2013; Rumbley & de Wit, 2017). In terms of staff, according to interview participants' opinion, the human resource is in need of more attention. For example, one interview participant noted:

The professional development of the staff is also essential as it is considered as the backbone of the university's development. If we would like to deploy the collaborative academic programmes or innovate the academic programmes, the staff are not qualified enough to conduct these programmes yet; then it is challenging (Interview 6-ASc1).

It is apparent that, in this explication, faculty members must be equipped with international knowledge and experience to take charge of these joint degree-level programmes and proceeding the reformation of other domestic academic programmes at this case-study university. This finding aligns with Beelen and Jones (2015), who identify that the process of internationalising the curricula or academic programmes are mainly based the capability of faculty to develop and deliver them. Another Dean echoed this view:

The building capacity of lecturers and managers is the most important thing as they can build and implement their academic programmes in alignment with the famous universities. In other words, they can help to complete the accreditation of academic programmes under the international standard. As a result, we can have academic programmes accredited by international organisations and recognised by prestigious foreign universities (Interview 11-ASc1).



Again, this view appears to recognise the connection between fostering the provision of professional development for academic staff and the improvement of programmes of study and university performance. This finding aligns with Murphy (2014), who acknowledged that to be successful, universities need to ensure that the requisite capabilities are developed in their academic staff, and this can be achieved through providing formal offerings of professional development for them. Regarding this matter, one interviewee suggested:

There should have a professional development programme for lecturers to go abroad one or two months every year, or lecturer exchange programmes, for example, it is essential to have these programmes like this (Interview 1-AEc1).

This finding supports the literature, which recognises the influence of studying abroad on the international professional development and teaching effectiveness for academics (Welch, 1997; Hudzik, 2014; Yeravdekar & Tiwari, 2014). For example, Beleen and Jones (2015) provided a wide range of evidence indicating that outgoing staff mobility become an effective tool in making a success of internationalisation process at home. However, according to Beelen and Jones (2015, p. 69), staff development programmes also need to support staff in delivering the existing disciplines or specific learning outcomes for all students in the Vietnamese context. That would mean staff development programmes not only support staff in relation to international knowledge but also how to incorporate these elements at the department and programs of study level.

Further, the quality of students is also discussed among academic participants as one of the decisive factors for the success of these joint degree-level programmes. Therefore, interviewees called for reinforcing English language teaching for them. For instance, one interviewee suggested:

If we establish an advanced programme or a high-quality programme of study, there are some subjects taught in English or the bilingual languages. This plan would lead to enhance the quality of foreign language competence for students, within their learning process, they have to read materials in English, then it would be very highly effective (Interview 9-AEd1).

However, a downside of this matter needed to be taken into consideration when strengthening these programmes as one noted:

For Foreign languages, now we set the outcomes of English standard requirement for all graduates at B1, B2 in compliance with the European framework. It also creates pressure on the students'

learning process as well. Indeed, when the students learn a foreign language without the practicing environment, it would become ineffective... (Interview 9-AEd1).

Further, another international element still gains more interest and attention, which is related to the area of research and publications. According to Knight (1997), the very nature of research and scholarly collaboration often lends itself to being more internationalised than other academic activities. However, what interview participants suggested here is related to a proper reward policy and incentive mechanism rather than specific research strategies. For instance, one interview participant noted:

Apart from the teaching duty, there is another side to the university, which is related to research. In attempts to improve the reputation, the educational quality, and prestige of the university, the research environment must be improved. As I said before, the current working environment of the university is still not good, for example, there is still the inequality between the researcher and the manager, research activities are not free... (Interview 7-ASc1).

In their view, to sustain the development of internationalisation of research production, the incentive policy in finance must be improved:

In the coming time, the school should have financial support to encourage the lecturers to participate in international activities or programmes, and then I think it will be gradually better (Interview 5-AEd1).

Participants adhering to this view concerned about the ineffectiveness of current policies in encouraging faculty and students to undertake research or publish international articles. In this respect, the participants believed that it is necessary to establish a proper system to sustain the development of international research collaboration of the University. There is apparently an urgent need for substantial financial commitment to support a range of international efforts. According to one interviewee:

We need more funding resource so that we can fund the lecturers going abroad for study, participating in conferences, or doing research, etc.... However, the current budget is so limited because it is mainly based on help and support from the foreign universities (Interview 11-ASc1).

Last but not least, interview participants suggested one necessary area needed to be upgraded, which is related to infrastructure or facilities in order to meet the requirement of internationalisation strategies and institutional standard.

...To invest in building a large, modern centre, and a digital library complying with the international standard to serve teaching and research for lecturers and students. When doing scientific research, it is necessary to trace back the history of the research issue. (Interview 20-AEd1).

In this quotation, it is unquestionable that there more investment on facilities for staff and students' work. In their view, the existing infrastructure required a lot of upgrading, from library, laboratories, research equipment to IT systems etc. According to Hawawini (2011), to be sustainable, each university needs to develop infrastructure to be more regionally and globally relevant.

Looking thorough all the dataset for this section, all of those suggested internationalisation strategies are more close to organisational strategies, rather than programme strategies, which include policies, planning and review systems, appropriate human resources, promotion systems, and infrastructure. The focus on organisational strategies reveals the fact that academic participants at this case-study university are well aware of the necessity for their institutional internationalisation strategy to be developed under the process approach rather than an ad hoc, fragmented or activity approaches. It is apparent that they wanted to integrate the international dimension into the institution's mission statement, policies and procedures, etc., in order to ensure that the international dimension is institutionalised. This finding supports Knight (1997), who suggested that this integration process helps to prevent a fragmented approach so that various international initiatives are reinforcing and benefiting from each other.

### **8.3.2 Future prioritised internationalisation strategies at University B**

In this section, survey participants at University B were asked to indicate the degree of priority of sixteen items regarding internationalisation strategies. These listed components have been already used for rating the current state of internationalisation implementation undertaken at University B. In this way, the research would make a series of suggestions for successful practical implementation.

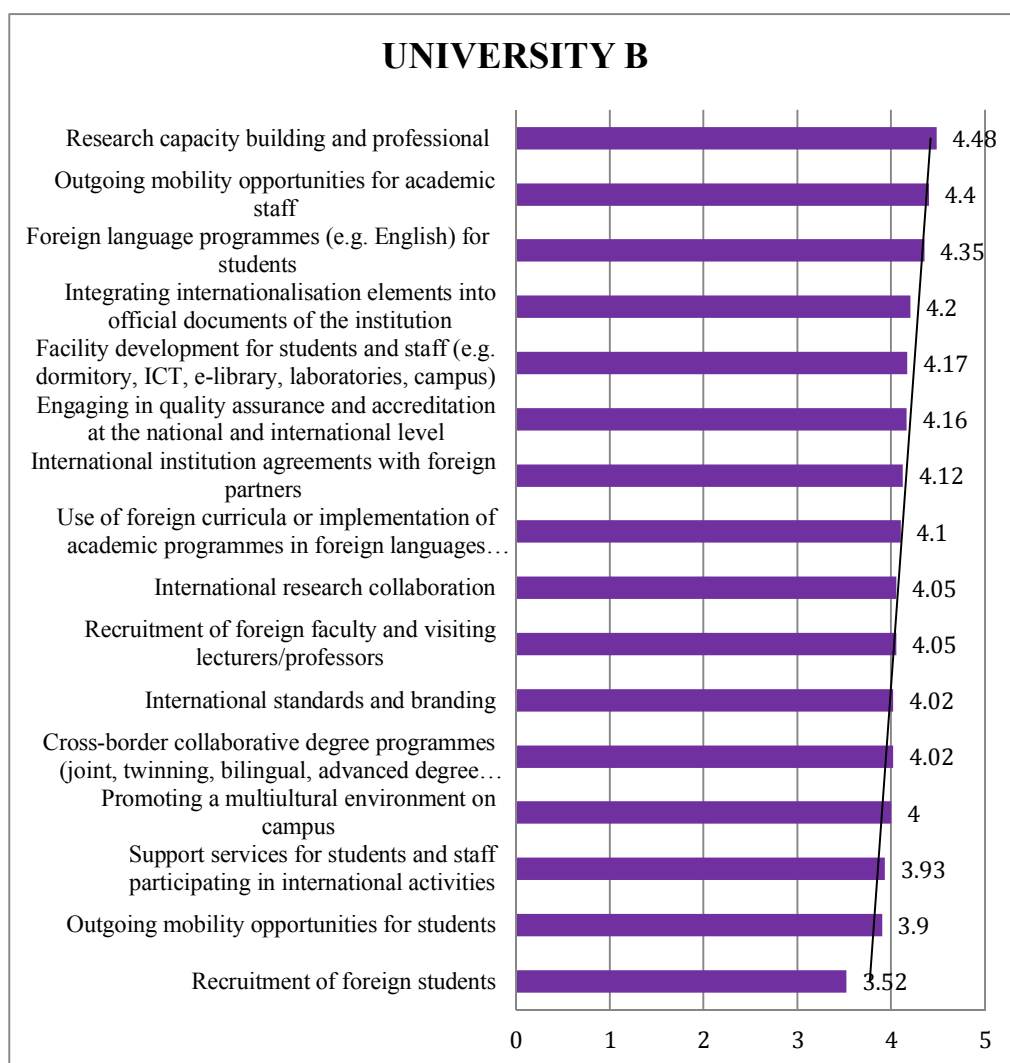
**Table 8.6** Internationalisation activities/elements to be further promoted at University B as perceived by academics

<b>Strategic programmes for internationalisation of higher education</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>N</b>
Outgoing mobility opportunities for students	3.90	.98160	.11411	74
Outgoing mobility opportunities for faculty/staff	4.40	.82626	.09605	74
Recruitment of foreign students	3.52	.81464	.09470	74
Recruitment of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	4.05	.91997	.10694	74
International research collaboration	4.05	.88970	.10343	74
Foreign language programmes (e.g. English) for students	4.35	.74819	.08698	74
Use of foreign curricula or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g. English)	4.10	.88469	.10284	74
Cross-border collaborative degree programmes (joint, twinning, bilingual, advanced degree programmes)	4.02	.85964	.09993	74
International institution agreements with foreign partners	4.12	.99247	.11537	74
Promoting a multi-cultural environment on campus	4.00	.74023	.08605	74
Facility development for students and staff (e.g. dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	4.17	.76495	.08892	74
Integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution	4.20	.84367	.09807	74
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	3.93	.86533	.10059	74
International standards and branding	4.02	.73973	.08599	74
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	4.16	.90701	.10544	74
Research capacity building and professional development	4.48	.83162	.09667	74

Source: Developed by the author of this study.

Table 8.6 presents the value of means, standard deviation, and standard error of the means for each category of internationalisation strategies. By adopting a five-point Likert scale, the range is given for each item from 1 to 5: 1 = Not a Priority, 2 = Low Priority, 3 = Medium Priority, 4 = High Priority, 5 = Essential. In comparison among value obtained from sixteen categories of

internationalisation strategies, the first impression from the result is that the mean scores across 16 items are not significantly different from each other (the highest  $M = 4.48$  and the lowest  $M = 3.52$ ). The estimated standard deviation and standard error of the means across the data set are around 1.0 and around 0.10 respectively. The low standard deviation and standard errors of the mean scores indicate that there is a high consensus of the total population regarding what should be promoted further. Subsequently, the mean values are depicted in another way in Figure 8.6, which makes the categories of internationalisation activities/elements to be further promoted clearer in the hierarchical order.



**Figure 8.6** Internationalisation activities/elements to be further promoted at University B as perceived by academics (Mean)

Source: Data presented as a bar chart- Developed by the author of this study.

As illustrated by Figure 8.6, in the first place comes ‘research capacity building and professional development’ (M=4.48), then ‘outgoing mobility opportunities for academic staff’ (M=4.56) and in third place comes ‘foreign language programmes (e.g., English) for students’ (M=4.43). These findings reveal that the most essential future internationalisation programmes at University B are to develop teaching staff capacity and foreign language proficiency for students. These suggestions are connected with the most significant challenge of University B mentioned in section 8.2.2, which are about shortages of qualified teaching staff and foreign language proficiency of students. Therefore, according to survey respondents, they called for more attention to foreign language programmes, which aligns with Taylor (2004, p. 158). According to Taylor (2004), central to the internationalisation of teaching programmes and other activities is the study of languages, either as a formal part of degree programmes or in preparation for study abroad. The fourth place comes ‘integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution’ (M= 4.20) and then ‘facility development’ (M=4.17). The results indicate that these two organisational strategies are essential in University B's development plans in the coming time. This finding, indeed, is consistent with the document analysis, which reflects the absence of internationalisation strategy in the vision, mission, and strategic plan of University B.

More specifically, across four groups of disciplines (in section 10 of Appendix 7), no significant differences were found between groups regarding these strategies. For example, in terms of ‘research capacity building and professional development’ for example, the highest mean for this strategy was scored by respondents in economics (M=4.80), which is slightly higher than those in foreign languages (M= 4.63), education (M=4.40), and science and technology (M=4.13). With regard to ‘outgoing mobility opportunities for academic staff’, the quantitative data indicate that respondents in economics rated this strategic program with the highest mean (M=4.90), compared with those in foreign languages (M = 4.40), in education (M = 4.33), and science and technology (M = 4.20). With regard to ‘foreign language programmes for students’, respondents in science and technology (M = 4.66) and in economics (M = 4.50) rated this strategy slightly higher than those in foreign languages (M = 4.36) and in education (M = 4.11). The One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) confirmed these interpretations as shown in section 10 of Appendix 7. These results reflected a high consensus among respondents regardless different disciplines. The reason behind such commonality is probably due to the fact that the current level of internationalisation was just at the initial stage. At this stage, survey data is

consistent with interview results, in which research participants recommended all strategic priorities to internationalisation in association with staffing and resource preparation.

Interview data provide detailed explanations for these expected programmes and activities. As a provincial-level institution, the capacity of University B to extend the network of international cooperation with universities all over the world is limited. Thus, among the prioritized strategies, the interviewees emphasised the most significant one related to developing teaching staff capacity. As one interview participant said:

I think for internationalisation to be successful, there must be human resources, who have been educated abroad, understanding the foreign culture, the foreign higher education system, and they will become a connecting bridge. In my view, the development of internationalisation of Vietnamese universities is mainly based on a number of highly respected professors who have an academic relationship with foreign countries (Interview 15-BEd1).

This perspective focuses on strengthening human resource capacity building at the grassroots level. In participants' perceptions, the international expertise, experience, and foreign language skills of staff are the most important factor in initiating internationalisation process. The finding aligns with De Wit (2013), who asserted that building human capacities for staff has proven a useful tool in improving the overall quality of higher education institutions (Hudzik, 2013, 2014; Yeravdekar & Tiwari, 2014; Rumbley & De Wit, 2017). In participants' desire, some suggested internationalisation programmes need to be launched in the coming time. For example, two academics noted:

Sending lecturers abroad for a short period to study or do scientific research in the countries, which have an advanced educational model (Interview 24-BSc1).

That is an international exchange programme for staff. If the lecturers are offered a favourable condition to exchange academics through international scientific conferences or inviting foreign experts to pay a visit to our university, their teaching experience, knowledge, and expertise will be improved (Interview 23-BEd1).

In these quotations, academic participants suggested internationalisation programme strategies related to the research area. There is a spectrum of ways to help staff to improve their international capacity such as sending lecturers abroad, creating opportunities for them to access updated scientific achievements, or participating in academic exchange programmes (De Wit, 2002; Altbach & Knight, 2007; Hudzik, 2014). In their discussion, these suggested programmes

mainly for addressing their insufficient expertise and experience in doing international research. Furthermore, staff mobility for further their postgraduate qualifications overseas is also mentioned as one of the priorities in the coming time. As one interview participant suggested:

I think there should be an incentive mechanism to encourage the lecturers to learn foreign languages and to pursue their doctoral programmes abroad (Interview 3-BSc1).

Participation of foreign students is discussed as one of the desired programme strategies in the future. In the strategic plan of University in the next five years, foreign students only come from Lao as one interview participant noted:

In the upcoming time, we will boost the cooperative relationship with the provinces of Lao, Thailand or Cambodia, providing education for these neighbours. I mean, we plan to provide human resources for them, in 5 to 10 years (Interview 15-AEd1).

Participants adhering to this strategy suggested more diversity in foreign students' nationality as they perceived the positive impacts from them to the University's culture and development. Two academic participants suggested:

It is possible to invite foreign students to study in some majors of our university, which would contribute to the diversity of the learners and increase the prestige of the university in the current international integration trend (Interview 2-BSc1).

I think the activity is to increase international students at the university because it will increase the communicative and cultural problem-solving capacity for domestic students (Interview 17- BSc1).

In these discussions, international or foreign students need to be increased, as their contributions to the University are vast. According to academic participants' suggestions, the engagement of foreign students can help to diversify the learners' culture sources, increase the prestige of the university, and develop multicultural understandings for domestic students. Participants were found to believe that the availability of international students at University B needs to be increased to gain benefit from their cultural, academic, and financial contributions (Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Hanassab & Tidwell, 2002; Teichler, 2017).

In addition, academic participants expected to offer opportunities for domestic students to gain international knowledge and experience abroad. According to their suggestions, these programmes are internship or exchange programmes. Two interview participants suggested:



In my view, the better way for improving international knowledge, skills, and experience for our students is to add overseas internship activities in the academic programmes so that the students can go abroad for a short-time period or exchange academic information with foreign professors ... (Interview 24-BSc1)

I think that is student exchange programmes. It means we can cooperate with any universities in South East Asian region. We have now become a member of the Asian community, and some countries in this community have a very developed higher education system such as Thailand, Singapore. If we have exchange programmes with them, then we can send our students there to do the internship, for example. This programme will create an environment for students to enhance knowledge and experience in the overseas learning environment ... (Interview 23-BEd1).

The benefit of internship programmes is asserted in a wide range of published literature (Beggs, Ross, & Goodwin (2008); Stiwné & Alves, 2010). For example, according to Mgaya and Mbekomize (2014, p.129), internship programmes benefit students in the way that these programmes provide students with a practical insight on what they learn theoretically at school. Participants adhering to this view suggested that the University needs to develop this programme so that their students can meet the demands of prospective employers.

In addition to internship programmes for students, a joint degree-level programme is desired to be set up in the coming time. Participants believed that this type of programme is crucial to their University. As one academic participant noted:

It is very important to have a proposal for an academic programme first. Then, this proposal helps us to prepare many relevant factors to meet the demands, such as the quality of the academic staff, or student, who participate in these courses. Initially, the [name of the University] can participate in such the scheme. Gradually, the capacity of academic staff will be improved. I think it is a necessary step (Interview 2-BSc1).

In this discussion, academic participants find joint degree-level programmes as a solution to improve the quality of teaching staff and students (Knight & De Wit, 1995; De Wit, 2002; Knight, 2004, 2008, 2012). In their clarification, these collaborative degree-level programmes offer them opportunities to work with foreign experts in building an academic programme meeting international standard. From these opportunities, teaching staff can gain experiences, knowledge, and skills in setting up an international programme. Furthermore, students who enrol in these courses are also qualified in the job market. According to participants, there are areas

where the University can facilitate joint degree-level programmes. As one academic participant suggested:

Currently, at [the name of the University], there are three majors capable of being internationalised, the first major is the English language ... The second major is Plant Protection because this discipline is related to agriculture. Currently, there is a high technological application for fertilising by using microorganisms; thus if we would like to import this development from the developed countries, it is essential to have a joint degree-level programme with them. The third major is Culture- Tourism because the number of tourists coming to the province is increasing, the demand for communication, exchange, and multicultural understanding of students is required profoundly ... (Interview 23-BEd1).

In this perspective, three suggested areas are capable of adopting a jointly taught programme, as international and intercultural knowledge is crucial to students in their future employability. Regarding the partners for initiating these international collaborative programmes, they suggested:

We will cooperate with Thailand to have a jointly taught programme in the framework of 2+2 or other countries such as Japan or Korea, they all would like to collaborate with us about that programme, before that, we will try to join in the ASEAN community network, that is the best. After that, we will reach further (Interview 15-AEd1).

In this quotation, universities in ASEAN network are considered as one of their partners in forming these programmes. In their clarification, their choice is based certain similarities regarding culture, the level of development, and the human resources (Knight, 2013a, 2013c). However, to put their desire into action, academic participants called for strong support from the provincial government or MOET:

We need strong support for a joint project or schemes from the provincial government or MOET to encourage our university to participate in the international process (Interview 2-BSc1).

In participants' discussion, they need both funding and an autonomy mechanism. Two interview participants expressed:

There is a need to have official documents or policies for internationalisation. It means we need a legal document to develop a joint degree-level programme or put the plans into practice (Interview 17- BSc1).

To our knowledge, some large universities in the region and across the country have already developed a certain wide range of internationalisation-related activities, for example, they have imported academic programmes from the prestigious universities. They all have an autonomy mechanism in finance. We also need that mechanism (Interview 2-BSc1).

In these quotations, research participants find these types of academic programmes deployed in other universities across Vietnam. In their perception, official documents or policies and autonomy mechanism in finance are the key success to run these academic programmes.

### **8.3.3 Discussion section**

Each university has its unique feature in what it represents and how it does things; therefore, it is not surprising when the two universities in the same country can have their way in their internationalisation efforts. Higher education internationalisation is an internal thing rather than a set of external factors.

Internationalisation is considered as "any systematic, sustained effort aimed at making higher education (more) responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy and labour markets" (van der Wende, 1997, p. 2). Universities have used internationalisation to increase the positive and limit the negative influence of globalisation (Childress, 2009). According to van der Wende (1997), the success of the development of internationalisation strategies depends on several factors. Internationalisation should be in alignment with the fundamental norms, values, and goals of the institution's mission, its responsibilities, and its place in society (van der Wende, 1997; Knight, 2004; Altbach & Knight, 2007; De Wit et al., 2017).

According to the research findings, there is a significant gap between these two cases regarding internationalisation practices. University A has already adopted a more western-style of internationalisation and is making significant inroads into internationalisation implementation by building partnerships with universities in USA, UK, and other European countries. However, University B has just established memoranda of understanding signed in partnership with universities in Southeast Asia. Against this backdrop, there is no significant difference between University A and University B regarding their future international orientations, except only 'international research collaboration' and 'support services'. Results from an independent sample *t* test confirmed this interpretation (see section 15 of Appendix 7). These top listed activities are: (1) research capacity building and professional development (Knight, 2004); (2) outgoing

mobility for staff (Knight & De Wit, 1995); (3) foreign language programmes, (4) facility development for supporting international initiatives (Knight, 1997; De Wit, 2002) (5) promoting international research collaboration (Hudzik, 2014), and (6) quality accreditation for the institution and programmes at the national and international level (Knight, 2001; Hudzik, 2013). These priorities are evidenced in both universities' strategic plan in the period 2015-2020. These have been documented in reports and published on the university's website. The levels of their targets for each case vary depending on available resources, current financial and human capacity, and its completed tasks.

At both universities, future prioritised strategies continue to emphasise staff mobility and human resource development, which have been the two most crucial conventional internationalisation practices at both universities. This finding indicates that going abroad to access new knowledge and technology; to gain multicultural experiences and values are always appreciated as one of the academics' most favourite activities. This perception increases the importance of further improving the mobility of scholars at both regional and global levels (Agarwal, 2007; Kehm & Teichler, 2007). Both universities considered facility and IT development as a higher priority. This choice stems from the reason that universities are still constrained by the scarcity of the facilities and technology required to support international initiatives.

Internationalisation is considered as helping both case universities to upgrade their status through enhancing their academic quality, innovating curriculum, accessing new scientific knowledge and technology, building human resource capacity, and reaching international standards. Therefore, the respondents suggested integrating international dimensions into the official document as a higher priority. This finding is consistent with Hudzik's (2013, p.57) suggestion that integrating internationalisation into existing institutional missions, values and priorities is one of the most important strategies. He advises connecting to and advancing core institutional priorities rather than replacing or adding new ones because of resources for internationalisation. It is important to stress that, like all forms of planning, the development and implementation of a strategy for internationalisation is an on-going process for any university. Internationalisation is a road without end because it involves the on-going change of higher education's short and long-term goals (Hudzik, 2013, p.58). Progress towards such goals should be monitored, and the process should be modified where necessary (Schoorman, 1999, p. 39).

## **Chapter 9. Summary, Conclusion, and Implications**

### **9.1. Introduction**

The internationalisation of higher education is a part of Vietnamese university efforts to fulfil their primary functions, namely, teaching, research, and service. From what has been published, this area has been under-researched in the academy. By rectifying that oversight, this empirical investigation mainly focused on exploring internationalisation of higher education in Vietnamese universities according to six key features. These six key elements are the meanings, rationales, operational process, potential risks, obstacles, and priorities of higher education internationalisation in the Vietnamese context.

Its departure was to contribute to the exploration of “How” and “What” in the field of internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam. In particular, the research focuses on addressing the following research questions:

1. How do academics at two universities in Vietnam perceive the meanings of internationalisation of higher education?
2. What are the perceived institutional rationales for internationalisation at Vietnamese universities?
3. How internationalisation strategies/programmes are being implemented at Vietnamese universities?
4. What are the institutional risks associated with the promotion of internationalisation?
5. What are the obstacles faced by Vietnamese universities in implementing internationalisation?
6. Which aspects of internationalisation strategy should be prioritised in the future?

In addressing these research questions, this study adopted both an inductive and deductive inquiry to explore research participants' perspectives of different aspects of the internationalisation in higher education. A mixed method multiple case study was applied to three different sources of evidence (survey, official documentation, and in-depth interviews). The main rationale for adopting a mixed methods approach is to avoid the bias of interviewees' responses and to involve a wide range of academics across the whole institution (by using a survey).

In addition, it is worth noting the specific need to go beyond the collection of website data such as university policies to understand internationalisation. These multiple and diverse sources

of evidence provide concurrent validity (using multiple sources) and convergent validity (triangulating data). Within a mixed method paradigm, this study applied purposive sampling for both qualitative and quantitative data collections. In aiming at understanding the characteristics of higher education internationalisation, there are 263 survey respondents, and 25 interview participants were investigated in total, including both lecturers and academic leaders. The thesis employed internationalisation theories and approaches to analyse the collected data. Six key elements were explored, analysed and discussed, which are summarised in the next section.

## **9.2. Summary of the Findings**

Multiple sources of data have enabled me to map, understand, and interpret the six main aspects of internationalisation of higher education in the two Vietnamese universities. They were investigated under the perspectives of academic participants of these two cases. The findings of this thesis are expected to contribute to development not only for these two case studies but also for other higher education institutions in Vietnam, in developing countries with the similar conditions.

### **9.2.1 Meaning of higher education internationalisation in the Vietnamese universities**

According to the findings of this study, there are three dominant conceptual understandings of internationalisation from the perspectives of academic participants at both universities. These conveyed ideas in the phrase of internationalisation of higher education were understood as ‘internationalisation strategies’, ‘a process of international integration’ and ‘the outcomes of internationalisation’. They are associated with three dominant approaches to the concept of internationalisation, namely, the activity approach, process approach, and rationale approach.

In the first school of thought (University A), the meaning of internationalisation of higher education is understood as a broad range of policies and programmes that the University needs to implement. Specifically, these activities are related to the core areas or functions of these institutions, namely, teaching, research, and services.

In the second perspectives (University B), the idea of internationalisation is viewed as a process of international integration of the University into the global educational sphere. In this perception, internationalisation is expressed as a common trend, acknowledging the vital role of the connection and networks between and among different higher education institutions around the world. Internationalisation is interpreted as the general reaction of higher education to the phenomenon of globalisation for their existence, survival, and development.

These discrepant conceptual understandings between participants at University A and University B align with its actual context of internationalisation policies and practices.

In the third perception, academic participants at both universities viewed the meaning of internationalisation as its aims. Internationalisation is understood as helping the institution to catch up with other excellent universities. At University A, the conceptualization of internationalisation is understood as international recognition, and at University B the terminology of internationalisation is viewed as achieving international targets.

In complementing and reinforcing one to another, the majority of participants seem to know why the universities need to be more internationalised, what should be included and what should be invested more to develop internationalisation further. In their diversified interpretations attributed to the concept, the importance of objectives and purposes are an indispensable part of internationalisation understandings.

### **9.2.2 Rationales of higher education internationalisation in the Vietnamese universities**

In looking at the significant research findings in this domain, internationalisation of higher education is more strongly driven by academic motives rather than economic, cultural, societal or political ones. The internationalisation in higher education is expected to be successful in influencing the academic heartland of teaching, learning and research activities. This finding aligns with literature, acknowledging that internationalisation is a means to enhance educational quality and to keep pace with developed countries such as the United Kingdom, Europe or the United States.

In particular, according to the perspectives of academic participants at University A, internationalisation activities are expected to bring about the improvement of quality in research, education, and academic programmes, human resource capacity, graduates' employability, and especially institutional visibility and recognition. Importantly, this case illustrates that there is a high consensus among participants regarding rationales for internationalisation across disciplines. The most important rationale is related to its educational consideration. This academic aspect is the core strategic priority of the institutional internationalisation.

On the other hand, the majority of expectations of participants at University B focused on education quality, brain gain, human resource capacity, academic programmes, and graduates' employability. The discrepancy of expected outcomes between University A and University B aligns with the vision and strategic aims of these two universities. University A, as a regional

university, is oriented to become a research university in 2020 and one of the leading universities in South East Asia; therefore, the achievements of research activities and international profile are essential, as these elements decide the university's position in the ranking system. In contrast, University B, as a local one, is oriented to become an education and research centre of the Central Area and Western Highlands of Vietnam at some point in the future. Therefore, with the national boundary of vision, international research quality and international reputation are not the primary aims in the coming time of University B.

According to De Wit (2013, p. 43), despite the different starting point of internationalisation objectives of educational institutions, the ultimate important focus of internationalisation is still the improvement of the teaching and learning process and student learning outcomes. The findings of these two cases support this view.

### **9.2.3 Practices of higher education internationalisation in the Vietnamese universities**

The findings of this study indicated that both University A and University B have been striving for the sustainability of their core business.

Different types of universities also reveal a considerable difference in their internationalisation programmes and activities. This difference stems from many causes, one of which is related to the past participation of its academics in study abroad. According to the finding of this research, there is a strong correlation between the current level of internationalisation in practice and the academics' study abroad experiences. As a result, University A has been more active in internationalisation than University B. University A has drafted an internationalisation strategy, but how much it can accomplish remains to be seen. University A has already adopted a western-style of internationalisation to some extent and has built partnerships with universities in the USA, the UK, and other European countries. Internationalisation practices at University A have been found in various forms such as sending staff for overseas study, teaching English, or using English as the medium of instruction in academic programmes to improve English language proficiency for students. Collaborative degree-level programmes, especially in the field of technology and science and economics at both undergraduate and postgraduate level have been undertaken. The internationalisation of the curricula and academic programmes has been facilitated. Other internationalisation activities such as international institutional agreements/networks, administrative and support services for students, facility development, international research collaboration, recruitment of foreign



faculty, outgoing mobility for students, or promoting a multicultural environment on campus have been developed at some extent. The overall atmosphere of internationalisation practices was regarded at some points between the level of 'average' and 'high,' which indicates the existence and development of these international dimensions in the University context.

In contrast, University B has only established some MOU for partnerships with other universities in Southeast Asia. What University B has achieved so far is to raise the importance of English and English language standards among students. The volume of the activities such as sending lecturers going abroad for furthering studies, sending students for doing internships abroad, hosting international conferences or some publications in international journals are very modest.

#### **9.2.4 Risks of higher education internationalisation in the Vietnamese universities**

The findings in this study about the potential risks of internationalisation do not echo the reviewed literature in the sense that there are substantial risks associated with the international dimension of higher education. The results of this study indicate that all possible risk issues found in the literature are foreseen at a low level in these two cases.

There are few concerns of participants at both universities regarding 'brain drain,' 'conflict among different generations of staff', 'political threat', and 'commercialisation'. 'Loss of cultural identity', 'a decrease of educational quality', 'increase in some degree mill', or 'increased inequality of access to educational opportunities' were not found to be significantly problematic at both University A and University B. These findings suggest that internationalisation of higher education is associated with more desirable benefits rather than potential risk issues. These findings are significant and contribute to the understanding of internationalisation characteristics in the Vietnamese context.

#### **9.2.5 Challenges of higher education internationalisation in the Vietnamese universities**

In implementing internationalisation, both universities have faced a number of challenges. The most significant challenges hindering the development of internationalisation process are financial deficiencies, lack of innovative infrastructure, shortages of highly skilled teaching staff and administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties.

### **9.2.6 Priorities of higher education internationalisation in the Vietnamese universities**

The finding of this study reveals that there are no significant differences in future priorities for internationalisation between academic participants' perspectives of University A and University B despite a great gap of their current practices of internationalisation and the capability of each case. Participants at both University A and University B draw attention to the components of internationalisation such as professional development for staff, outgoing mobility for staff, foreign language studies, facility development, international research collaboration, quality assurance for institutions and academic programmes. This future orientation aligns with what has been outlined in the government's plans aiming to achieve academic excellence for Vietnam's higher education system in 2020.

Overall, regarding the conceptualisation of internationalisation, the findings in this study somehow aligns with what the extant literature says: it is a pluralist and context-relative concept. Regarding rationales of internationalisation of higher education, both universities emphasise academic aspects in its approach to internationalisation rather than economic, cultural, or social ones. However, there is a significant discrepancy in categories or types of activities or programmes attributed to the internationalisation policies and practices. In general, University A tended to internationalise all three-core areas of higher education: research, teaching, and learning. These international dimensions are manifested in the forms such international exchange programmes, joint degree-level programmes, international research collaboration, or outgoing mobility of staff and students. At University B, the internationalisation process has not significantly been developed yet.

At University A, in comparison among groups of disciplines, economics subject is more internationalised than all other research disciplines. Similarly, respondents in economics rated all of internationalisation motivations at the highest level of importance, but scored challenges at the lowest and more importantly, scored all of internationalisation strategies significantly higher than all other disciplines. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is an alignment between the development of internationalisation programmes with its academics' commitment regarding to the strongest motivations, least barriers and highest desires for future priorities to internationalisation.

At University B, across disciplines, the largest proportion of participants, who believed all of these motivations to be important, are from economics while those from education are the

lowest. In terms of internationalisation in practice, the highest mean for all of these internationalisation programmes were scored by respondents in foreign languages, while the lowest mean scores were from economics and education. With regard to internationalisation risks, the highest mean was scored by economics participants, while the lowest mean scores were from those in science and technology. Regarding challenges, respondents in foreign languages scored all of these difficulties significantly lower than those in economics, in education and in science and technology. For internationalisation priorities, the highest mean for all of these strategies was scored by respondents in economics. In general, at the initial stage of this process, although internationalisation programmes are most visible in the field of foreign languages and academic staff in this field found the least challenges, motivations and future goals of this process are still focused on economics area.

Therefore, it can be concluded from the two cases of this study that Vietnamese universities are at different stages of development in terms of internationalisation. While internationalisation strategies are more highly developed in older and larger universities like University A, internationalisation strategies tend to be comparatively less engaged in younger and smaller institutions, and located far from the capital like University B. However, the path chosen to reach this goal is quite similar no matter what type of university or institutional mission. Not only do rural-based universities need to internationalise like other universities, but the process is of specific relevance to them. Therefore, participants of University B called for support from the government at all national, regional and provincial levels.

### **9.3. Originality**

This study adheres to the following elements:

This study has carried out empirical work, which has not previously been undertaken. Twenty-five individuals either directly participating in, or involved with internationalisation policies and practices in their context, have been interviewed. In addition to this, 263-questionnaire responses were received and analysed. The information generated from document analysis, interview and survey participants answered the research questions, addressing the deficiency from previous published literature in this field.

The project shows originality in developing and building on previous work. The internationalisation of higher education has captured much attention from famous scholars worldwide, especially in Western, developed countries and other developing countries also.

However, screening on existing research on internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam has shown that there are no publications concerning how university internationalisation is understood and implemented from the perspectives of its key stakeholders, particularly academic staff. This study addressed that gap by providing information relating to the understanding of internationalisation conceptualization and its characteristics in the Vietnamese context. It is the first attempt to analyse and systematise a broad variety of aspects of university internationalisation ranging from conceptualization, rationales, implementation, risks, to challenges. This study is considered as an important step in developing the understanding of the internationalisation characteristics of Vietnamese universities comprehensively, and meaningfully. The new knowledge and insights drawn from the internationalisation of these two cases are likely to be useful to other educational researchers interested in this contemporary global issue. Through the findings of this study, institutional leaders and policymakers could work out the most effective methods in the process of assuring and improving internationalisation policies and practices in higher education institutions.

University A and B are typical representatives for the majority of universities in Vietnam, which share the similar characteristics regarding scope, scale, historical background, national economic condition, and the structure of leadership and management and higher education governance. Data generated from this, which can be applied to other institutions not only in Vietnam but also in developing countries whose higher education sector shares similarities with that of Vietnam, especially in pursuit of internationalisation.

## **9.4 Implications for Policy and Practice**

### **9.4.1 Implications for policy**

Policies at institutional, regional and national levels should be reviewed and adjusted to ensure that the current agenda and processes of university internationalisation are being incorporated into the needs and expectations of the stakeholders. According to the findings of this study, a number of policy implications and recommendations are made to enhance the effectiveness of internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam. Although the findings in this study pertain to the two cases in the Vietnamese context, the following policy recommendations could also apply to HEIs in other developing countries with similar contexts. Nevertheless, it is important to recognise that developing countries and their HEIs could also differ considerably regarding

needs and constraints; therefore, adaptation and adjustment should be made to fit the context of individual HEIs in those countries.

Firstly, whether internationalisation becomes the new institutional direction or is fully integrated into the general strategy, it requires both strong commitment and support from the top. The strategy should become a living document, which supports and stimulates active involvement of all the relevant stakeholders. It is not unreasonable when De Wit & Hunter (2015, p.3) predict that the future of internationalisation looks bright, but its further development and impact will only take place if the various stakeholders maintain an open dialogue about all the relevant aspects of this on-going process such as rationales, means, or obstacles. The university needs to ensure the right conditions for adopting appropriate structures together with a carefully defined set of targets and timescales.

Secondly, political will and support from higher bureaucratic levels are important for public HEIs in Vietnam such as these two cases to engage successfully in the internationalisation process. This support could be manifested in the form of increased budget allocation for higher education institutions, providing a legal framework to support widening internationalisation programmes or reducing the complicated bureaucratic process to facilitate international initiatives. For example, public HEIs can maintain their autonomy but still be responsible for their performance and service to society. A balance among the three elements of politicization, institutional autonomy, and accountability is the key to success for higher education development, particularly the growth of international dimensions in HEIs in small developing countries like Vietnam.

Thirdly, a regulatory system at the national level is needed to prevent foreign 'degree mills' and low-quality education providers. The existing regulatory system needs to upgrade its effectiveness and ability to oversee the growing number of HEIs and the increasing complexity of their operation. In other words, the higher education supervision system should be able to regulate not only domestic but also foreign education systems or programmes operating within the national borders. At the institutional level, the existence of a functional, comprehensive strategy and policy of internationalisation is indispensable for guiding, monitoring and evaluating the implementation and progress of its internationalisation.

Fourthly, internationalisation should be integrated into the vision and mission of HEIs. Crucially it is necessary to establish clear internationalisation goals, benchmarks and indicators,

and the provision of systematic organizational support. It should appropriately identify and address the challenges and risks associated with internationalisation of higher education, and align and harmonize the perceptions, practices, and priorities of internationalisation to eliminate contradictions and inconsistencies so that the internationalisation process can be enhanced and its benefits can be maximised.

Fifthly, a useful database system should be established to collect and update timely, accurate information related to international dimensions of higher education at both institutional and national levels, which can be fed into other stages of the policy formulation process. More importantly, the strategy should be linked to the government's economic diversification programme and address the current issues related to human capital development such as skills gaps and skills mismatches between higher education provision and the labour market needs. In addition to the existence of a functional, comprehensive internationalisation strategy and policy, adequate human and financial resources are indispensable to execute the strategy or policy effectively.

Finally, for University A and University B in particular, and for Vietnam's higher education system in general, a number of other factors should be guaranteed as they are crucial in enhancing internationalisation such as strong institutional leadership, the commitment of all relevant institutional stakeholders, and institutional activeness in seeking partnership. In addition to this, improving communication channels at the institutions is necessary to keep the institutional stakeholders informed and updated about the opportunities to participate in international programmes and activities, for example, the information of international institutional agreements. The faculty and staff should continually develop their knowledge and skills through participating in professional development workshops and international conferences and seminars. Doing research largely depends on funding source; therefore, investing more of the budget on these activities is essential in building and developing the research capacity and production for faculty and staff. Furthermore, curriculum reform and innovation are important to enhance the students' capability and graduates' competitiveness in the regional and international markets. In this improving process, international students and foreign faculty should be encouraged to participate in curriculum development so that their potential contribution could be capitalised.

#### **9.4.2 Implications for practice**

This study makes modest recommendations for more effectiveness of internationalisation of higher education in these two cases in order to help maximise the benefit of this process and to overcome the challenges.

Firstly, at University A, they have undertaken and developed a certain amount of internationalisation activities or programmes. At University B, these activities are still at a very early stage. However, at any stages, to foster internationalisation activities, institutional strategic plans should be composed in detail, for example, what programmes should be embedded, how much available resource are affordable, and how to overcome the shortages. Then, the leadership should listen to the comments and contributions from interested staff and make it work.

Secondly, despite the discrepancy in international policies and activities between University A and B, both have shown that they have been gradually integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of postsecondary education. Internationalisation requires substantive, transformative change at all levels. However, that change must not be rushed. All must be based on a great deal of strategic planning, the establishment of measurable outcomes and especially accountability.

Thirdly, there should be a reconsideration of the role of mobility and exchanges across the whole institution including both staff and students. There needs to be a dialogue that takes into account the realities and needs of all of the departments. There must be a thoughtful dialogue concerning all the possible issues related internationalisation dimensions, policies, and practices.

Fourthly, more efforts should focus on curriculum reform to ensure students are exposed to international skills and knowledge in both cases. There are a large number of students that do not go abroad. Thus, universities should reinforce internationalisation in their curriculum and provide faculty with support and incentives to internationalise their courses. University A already has internationally accredited academic programmes and jointly taught programmes. The lecturers can learn from each other to develop sharing best practice.

Fifthly, communication on internationalisation opportunities and activities need to be enhanced. Academic units should maintain a meaningful dialogue with the central office so that resources can be better utilised. In addition to this, they should communicate with each other to

foster interdisciplinary collaboration in internationalisation. More efforts need to be focused on curriculum development to ensure the inclusion of international dimensions in academic programmes, which are not just modified and built upon existing resources. The national government should provide more funds to support internationalisation activities in these two cases.

Sixthly, twenty-first-century globalisation is forcing higher education to adopt a more comprehensive approach towards internationalisation (Hudzik, 2013). The commitment to be involved in comprehensive internationalisation is crucial because it replaces the existing institutional frames of reference with an emphasis on local or domestic dominance by a global one (Hudzik, 2013, p.50).

Finally, there are some key matters, which should be taken into consideration regarding the future development of internationalisation, not only in these two cases but also in Vietnam's higher education system more broadly. This orientation raises a critical question: Should all universities in Vietnam in general, and particularly University A and University B attempt to internationalise? From the globalisation point of view, the answer would likely be "yes." However, depending on the available resource, capability and policy context of each case, internationalisation strategies and practices need to be moderated to assure the effectiveness of these activities. For the time being, University A is largely engaged in the process of internationalisation focusing on cooperative academic programmes, research and academic and cultural exchange for both students and staff. However, it seems that there is still not much developed in this area for University B due to its status and low-ranking position in the national league table. In the case of University B, specifically, it could only afford to have "modest aims" in internationalisation efforts because the nature and status of the university do not allow it to aspire to be an excellent university or reach a high-ranking position in the international league table. Therefore, University B is mainly recruiting students from its province. Perhaps this is an appropriate path for the time being due to its current condition.

### **9.5 Limitations of the Research and Implications for Future Research**

Although this research has identified a range of significant findings as an original study of internationalisation of higher education in the Vietnamese context, it does have some limitations and leaves some implications for further relevant research on internationalisation of higher education either in the Vietnamese context or other contexts.



### **9.5.1 Limitations of the research**

The project is limited to two typical types of higher education institutions' participation in internationalisation: a second and third tier university. Both cases have been analysed according to similar criteria to examine different degrees and stages of internationalisation. However, the findings and theories generated from this research are still limited as a reflection of the entire map of internationalisation of higher education in the Vietnamese higher education context. Thus, further research could investigate internationalisation of higher education in different types of HEIs, for example, the vocational and technological HEIs, adult HEIs, and the private HEIs. The differentiation of national policy and resource allocations to various types of Vietnamese HEIs makes the position of internationalisation of higher education different in practice. To some extent, the findings and arguments generated from these universities are still limited as a representation of only provincial and regional types of HEIs. Therefore, more types of cases would make the theory of internationalisation of higher education in the Vietnamese context more rigorous.

Regarding the limited number of cases, the researcher argues that in the primary stage of theory exploration, the low (or small) number of cases is helpful to have an in-depth understanding of internationalisation of higher education in a particular context. Two cases can offer more detailed and holistic information of internationalisation of higher education. While, in the latter stage, more multiple cases should be applied for testing the theory.

### **9.5.2 Implications for future research**

This study examines the perceptions, practices, and challenges of internationalisation at HEIs in Vietnam from the perspectives of the academic staff. This study suggests that future studies of internationalisation process in public HEIs in Vietnam should include the views of stakeholders at the Ministry level. Examining their perceptions could shed light on how decisions related to international dimensions of higher education are made and what criteria and factors influence the decisions. Moreover, to bridge the gap between higher education provision and the labour market needs, the perspectives and concerns of business and industry sectors as well as the local communities should be paid attention for future research on this field.

This study reveals that there are both commonalities and differences between University A and University B regarding internationalisation conceptualisation and practices. Therefore, a suggestion for on-going research in this area is a comparison of this research with similar

research carried out in other developing countries with the same political but different social contexts. On the one hand, this would allow the further validation of the findings of this study, but more importantly, such broader comparative studies would help to develop a more robust theorisation of the impact of such differences.

This study identifies the importance of internationalisation in influencing the quality of higher education. Therefore, there should be a further comprehensive research study about the impact of internationalisation on the overall quality of Vietnam's higher education system. That research will highlight the effectiveness of internationalisation strategies those Vietnamese universities can adopt. Moreover, the potential conflict of interest between institutions from developing countries and developed countries in establishing and maintaining international partnership needs to be studied in detail. This study confirms that internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam is academically driven, and income generation is not a motivation for internationalisation. In many developed countries, particularly English-speaking countries, a commercial spirit drives the internationalisation of higher education more than other rationales (Huang, 2007). This conflict of interest may have a negative impact on the maintenance of such international partnership, which needs to be further researched.

In building on this study, future research could examine the motivations, benefits, risks, and criteria affecting decisions in forming partnerships with foreign universities as well as in seeking outgoing mobility opportunities for students and staff. Future study may also look into what constitutes international academic standards as visualised by higher education institutional stakeholders and how internationalisation processes could contribute to the realisation of this goal.

Finally, other potential studies could include a comparative study of the internationalisation of Vietnamese universities with that of other developing or developed Asian economies, such as Thailand, Japan, Malaysia, China or Singapore to investigate the relevance between them and identify the contextual influence in the process of internationalisation of higher education.

## **9.6 Concluding Remarks**

Although there are limitations regarding the generalisability of the findings from these two cases, this was not the intention of this research. This lack of generalisability is significant in itself as it paves the way for further studies and significantly contributes to the study of internationalisation

of higher education in developing countries. The two universities will continue to seek and adopt new ways of internationalising, finding more imaginative ways to address emerging challenges and to meet the goals of internationalisation.

This research took a long time but was a rewarding exploration of internationalisation of higher education in Asian contexts, in particular, the Vietnamese context. The results of this study fulfil its mission for addressing the literature gap in the academic research. More importantly, it opens up the knowledge of internationalisation in higher education in the Vietnamese context, and it is a time for a continuous development of theoretical and practical features of the research in this field.

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## Appendix 1. Interview Questions

No.	Research Questions	Interview Questions	Theme
1.	How do academics at two universities in Vietnam perceive the concept of internationalisation of higher education?	What does 'internationalisation of higher education' mean to you?	Perceptions of Internationalisation
2.	What are the perceived institutional rationales for internationalisation at Vietnamese universities?	Is it important for your institution to promote internationalisation?  Why? Or what are the rationales your institution should be more internationalised?	Rationales of internationalisation
3.	How internationalisation strategies/programmes are being implemented at Vietnamese universities?	Does your university or department have any internationalisation strategies? What are they?  What are the main activities and programmes associated with the internationalisation process promoted in your institution?  How would you evaluate those internationalisation activities and programmes being implemented at your institution?  How is the administrative and support services for provided by your institution?	Practices of Internationalisation
4.	What are the institutional risks associated with the promotion of internationalisation?	In your opinion, what are possible risks do you think that your institution may face with when it promotes internationalisation? If yes, what might be done to reduce and manage those risks?	Risks of Internationalisation
5.	What are the obstacles faced by Vietnamese universities in implementing internationalisation?	What are challenges faced by your institution in implementing internationalisation activities/programmes?  In your opinion, what should be done to overcome the above-mentioned challenges in order to enhance the internationalisation practices at your institution?	Challenges of Internationalisation
6.	Which aspects of internationalisation strategy should be prioritised in the future?	What programmes should be more prioritised in the internationalisation process of your institution in the future years? Why?  What organisational factors should be prioritised for your institution to be more internationalised? Why?	Recommendations

## Appendix 2. Interview's Profile

<b>Informant</b>	<b>Research Site</b>	<b>Method</b>	<b>Number of Participants</b>
<b>Rector/Vice-Rector</b>	University A	Telephone Interview	1
	University B		0
<b>Head or Vice Head of Office/Functional Department</b>	University A	Telephone interview	2
	University B	Email interview	2
	University A	Face-to-face interview	1
	University B	Face-to-face interview	4
<b>Head or Vice Head of Academic Department</b>	University A	Telephone interview	7
	University B	Face-to-face interview	5
<b>Senior Lecturer</b>	University A	Telephone interview	2
	University B	Telephone interview	1
<b>Total</b>			25

Source: Developed by the author of this study

### Appendix 3. Characteristics of Interviewees

Case Studies	Participants	Degrees	Experiences	Fields of Study	Title	Rank
University A	INTVW 1	Doctorate	25 - 30 years	Economics	Assoc.Prof.	Assoc. Head
	INTVW 4	Master	<30 years	Social Science	Principal Lecturer	Assoc.Head
	INTVW 5	Doctorate	5 -10 years	Social Science	Senior Lecturer	Assoc.Head
	INTVW6	Master	10-15 years	Science & Technology	Senior Lecturer	Assoc.Head
	INTVW 7	Doctorate	20 - 25 years	Science & Technology	Principal Lecturer	
	INTVW9	Doctorate	10 - 15 years	Social Science	Senior Lecturer	Assoc.Head
	INTVW10	Doctorate	10 - 15 years	Science & Technology	Senior Lecturer	Subject Head
	INTVW11	Doctorate	10 - 15 years	Science & Technology	Assoc.Prof.	Head
	INTVW12	Doctorate	25 - 30 years	Economics	Assoc.Prof.	Rector Board
	INTVW 13	Doctorate	10 - 15 years	Humanities	Senior Lecturer	Head
	INTVW14	Doctorate	10 - 15 years	Science & Technology	Senior Lecturer	Assoc.Head
	INTVW18	Master	10 - 15 years	International Cooperation Office	Senior Lecturer	Vice Director
	INTVW 20	Doctorate	<30 years	Social Science	Assoc.Prof.	Head

	INTVW 21	Doctorate	25 - 30 years	Science & Technology	Assoc.Prof.	Head
	INTVW 22	Doctorate	20 - 25 years	Science & Technology	Assoc.Prof.	Assoc.Head
<b>University B</b>	INTVW2	Master	10 - 15 years	Science & Technology	Senior Lecturer	Head
	INTVW 3	Master	10 - 15 years	Science & Technology	Senior Lecturer	Head
	INTVW 8	Master	15- 20 years	Humanities	Principal Lecturer	Head
	INTVW 15	Master	10 - 15 years	Social Science	Senior Lecturer	Head
	INTVW16	Master	15- 20 years	Science & Technology	Senior Lecturer	Head
	INTVW 17	Master	15- 20 years	Science & Technology	Senior Lecturer	Head
	INTVW 19	Doctorate	10 - 15 years	Science & Technology	Senior Lecturer	Head
	INTVW 23	Doctorate	5 -10 years	Social Science	Senior Lecturer	Head
	INTVW 24	Doctorate	10 - 15 years	Science & Technology	Senior Lecturer	
	INTVW 25	Master	15- 20 years	Social Science	Senior Lecturer	Subject Head

Source: Developed by the author of this study

## Appendix 4. Demographic of Survey Respondents and Their International Experiences

### Demographic of Survey Respondents

Information of survey respondents	N	%	N	%
Degree	University A (N= 189)		University B (N=74)	
Doctor	59	31.2	4	5.4
Master	119	63.0	66	89.2
Bachelor	11	5.8	4	5.4
Status	University A (N= 189)		University B (N=74)	
Lecturer	159	84.1	67	90.5
Principal Lecturer	20	10.1	7	9.5
Associate Professor	10	5.3	0	0.0
Years of experience	University A (N= 189)		University B (N=74)	
0-5 years	56	29.6	8	10.8
6-10 years	57	30.2	30	40.5
11-15 years	21	11.1	22	29.7
16-20 years	17	9.0	10	13.5
More than 20 years	38	20.1	4	5.4
Fields of working	University A (N= 189)		University B (N=74)	



Economics	39	20.6	10	13.5
Foreign languages	53	28.0	22	29.7
Education	39	20.6	27	36.5
Science and technology	58	30.7	15	20.3

Source: Developed by the author of this study

### International Experiences of Survey Respondents

Which university are you working at			What is the longest time you have been in another country?					Total
			Less than two weeks	2 weeks to 1 month	1 month to 6 months	6 months to 1 year	Over 1 year	
University A	Economics	Count	7	0	3	3	26	39
		%	17.9%	0.0%	7.7%	7.7%	66.7%	100.0%
	Education	Count	18	1	5	4	11	39
		%	46.2%	2.6%	12.8%	10.3%	28.2%	100.0%
	Foreign Languages	Count	6	4	1	9	33	53
		%	11.3%	7.5%	1.9%	17.0%	62.3%	100.0%
	Science and Technology	Count	3	4	3	3	45	58
		%	5.2%	6.9%	5.2%	5.2%	77.6%	100.0%
	Economics	Count	10	0	0	0	0	10
		%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
University B	Education	Count	26	0	0	0	1	27
		%	96.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.7%	100.0%
	Foreign Languages	Count	17	0	4	1	0	22
		%	77.3%	0.0%	18.2%	4.5%	0.0%	100.0%
	Science and Technology	Count	15	0	0	0	0	15
		%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%

Source: Developed by the author of this study

### To Sum Up

Which university are you working at		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
University A	Less than two weeks	34	18.0	18.0	18.0
	2 weeks to 1 month	9	4.8	4.8	22.8
	1 month to 6 months	12	6.3	6.3	29.1
	6 months to 1 year	19	10.1	10.1	39.2
	Over 1 year	115	60.8	60.8	100.0
	Total	189	100.0	100.0	
University B	Less than two weeks	68	91.9	91.9	91.9
	1 month to 6 months	4	5.4	5.4	97.3
	6 months to 1 year	1	1.4	1.4	98.6
	Over 1 year	1	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	74	100.0	100.0	

Source: Developed by the author of this study

## Appendix 5. Questionnaire (ENGLISH VERSION)

### 1. Background information

This section aims at gathering personal & professional information of respondents. Please place a tick '√' in each multiple choice question and write down your answer(s) in the space provided for each open-ended question.

<b>1.1 Which university are you working at?</b>			
<b>1.2 In which discipline do you give lecture?</b>			
<input type="checkbox"/> Economics <input type="checkbox"/> Education		<input type="checkbox"/> Foreign languages <input type="checkbox"/> Science and Technology Other (specify).....	
<b>1.3 What is your highest degree and where was it obtained?</b>			
<input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor (from .....)  <input type="checkbox"/> Master (from ..... )		<input type="checkbox"/> Doctor (from.....)  Other (specify).....	
<b>1.4 What is your academic title?</b>			
<input type="checkbox"/> Lecturer  <input type="checkbox"/> Principle Lecturer		<input type="checkbox"/> Associate professor <input type="checkbox"/> Professor Other (specify).....	
<b>1.5 What is the total number of years you have served at this university?</b>			
0-5 years <input type="checkbox"/>	6-10 years <input type="checkbox"/>	16-20 years <input type="checkbox"/>	More than 20 years <input type="checkbox"/>
11-15 years <input type="checkbox"/>			
<b>1.6 Which foreign languages are you fluent in ?</b>			
a) English <input type="checkbox"/>	c) French <input type="checkbox"/>		e)
German <input type="checkbox"/>			
b) Russian <input type="checkbox"/>	d) Japanese <input type="checkbox"/>		f)
Chinese <input type="checkbox"/>			
<b>1.7 What is the longest time you have been in another country for studying or business purpose?</b>			
a) Less than two weeks <input type="checkbox"/>	c) 1 month to 6 months <input type="checkbox"/>	5. Over 1 year <input type="checkbox"/>	
b) 2 weeks to 1 month <input type="checkbox"/>	d) 6 months to 1 year <input type="checkbox"/>	Other .....	

**2. Please indicate the level of importance internationalisation has for your institution and for Vietnam. Please place a tick '√' in one space only.**

Internationalisation	Not at all important	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important
2.1 For your institution	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.2 For Vietnam	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**3. Does your institution have a policy or strategic plan for internationalisation? Please place a tick '√' in one space only.**

Yes ☐ No ☐

**4. Indicate the level of importance of the following rationales for your institution to be more internationalised. Please place a tick '√' in one space only.**

<b>Institutional motivations</b>	<b>Not at all important</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Neither important nor unimportant</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Very important</b>
4.1 To improve the quality of education	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.2 To strengthen high quality of research	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.3 To develop and innovate curriculum	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.4 To promote intercultural awareness and mutual understanding	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.5 To improve international visibility and reputation of your institution	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.6 To educate graduates with ability to work and study internationally	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.7 To develop strategic partnerships and alliances with foreign partners	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.8 To generate revenue and diversify financial resources	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.9 To increase the competitiveness of your institution	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.10 To develop human resource capacity	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.11 Brain Gain	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.12 To promote national culture and value	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.13 To access new knowledge and technology	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.14 To meet national economic demand	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.15 To meet Asian and global market demand	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

**5. How would you evaluate the activeness of the following internationalisation activities at your institution? Please place a tick '√' in one space only.**

<b>Programmes/Strategies</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Very little</b>	<b>A moderate amount</b>	<b>Quite a lot</b>	<b>A very great deal</b>
5.1 Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.2 Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of faculty/staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.3 Recruitment of foreign students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.4 Recruitment or receipt of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/professors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.5 International research collaboration	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.6 Foreign language programmes (e.g., English) for students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.7 Use of foreign curriculum or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g., English)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.8 Cross-border collaborative degree programmes (joint, twinning, bilingual, advanced degree programmes)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.9 International institution agreements with foreign partners	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.10 Promoting a multicultural environment on campus	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.11 Facility development for students and staff (e.g., dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.12 Supporting services for students and staff participating in international activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.13 International academic standard and branding achievement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.14 Engaging in quality accreditation for the institution and academic programmes at the national and international level	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.15 Integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**6. How would you rate the level of the following risks that your institution may be faced with when promoting internationalisation? Please place a tick '√' in one space only.**

<b>Risks</b>	<b>Very low</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>Average</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Very high</b>
6.1 Decrease of educational quality	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6.2 Loss of cultural or national identity	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6.3 Commercialisation of higher education	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6.4 Brain Drain	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6.5 Increased inequality in access to educational opportunities	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6.6 Increase in number of “degree mills” and/or low quality providers	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6.7 Conflict among different generations of staff(e.g. in terms of perceptions, cultures, benefits)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6.8 Emergence of too much internationally outward oriented mentality (Political incongruences/threats)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

**7. How would you rate the level of following obstacles to internationalisation implementation that your institution has? Please place a tick '√' in one space only.**

<b>Difficulties</b>	<b>Very low</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>Average</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Very high</b>
7.1 Lack of overall strategy, concrete plans and appropriate mechanism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.2 Limited interest of students (e.g., insufficient demand for internationalised programmes)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.3 Lack of financial resources	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.4 Lack of involvement and commitment from academic staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.5 Lack of human resources (appropriate skills and expertise)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.6 Difficulties of recognition and equivalence of qualifications or academic programmes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.7 Lack of high-quality infrastructure	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.8 Competition from other universities (Lack of prior reputation and short history of the institution)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.9 Little recognition or interest in internationalisation (competing priorities for time and resources at institution) by senior leaders	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.10 Complicated bureaucratic procedures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.11 Lack of international partnering opportunities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



**8. In your opinion, which of the following internationalisation elements should be prioritised for future internationalisation at your institution? Please place a tick '✓' in one space only.**

<b>Strategies</b>	Not a priority	Low priority	Medium Priority	High Priority	Essential
8.1 Outgoing mobility opportunities for students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.2 Outgoing mobility opportunities for academic staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.3 Recruitment of foreign students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.4 Recruitment of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.5 International research collaboration	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.6 Foreign language programmes (e.g. English) for students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.7 Use of foreign curriculum or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g. English)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.8 Cross-border collaborative degree programmes (joint, twining, bilingual, advanced degree programme)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.9 International institutional agreements with foreign partners	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.10 Promoting a multi-cultural environment on campus	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.11 Facility development for students and staff (e.g. dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.12 Integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.13 Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.14 Striving for regional and international academic standards, branding and reputation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.15 Engaging in quality accreditation for the institution and academic programmes at the national and international level	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.16 Research capacity building and professional development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP AND COOPERATION!**

## **Appendix 6 - Lists of Documents as Secondary Data**

Higher Education Reform Agenda, Resolution 14/2005/NQ-CP) dated 2 November 2005

Vietnamese Education Law 2005

Resolution 14/2005/NQ-CP) dated 2 November 2005

Directive No 296/CT-TTg, on Renovating Higher Education management for the period of 2010 - 2012

Circular No 10/2011/TT-BGDĐT on Regulations of post-graduating training.

Higher Education Law 2012

Regulation No 43/2007/QĐ-BGD&ĐT on training and educating at tertiary education in credit-based system.

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## Appendix 7- Statistical Analysis of Questionnaire Data

Section 1. Rationales for internationalisation of higher education- Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University A

### CROSSTABULATION

Dependent Variables	Groups	Not at all important	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	Total
<b>To improve the quality of education</b>	Economics				7	32	39
					17.9%	82.1%	100.0%
	Education		1	4	10	24	39
			2.6%	10.3%	25.6%	61.5%	
	Foreign languages			2	20	31	53
				3.8%	37.7%	58.5%	
	Science and Technology				22	36	58
					37.9%	62.1%	
	Total		1	6	59	123	189
			0.5%	3.2%	31.2%	65.1%	
<b>To promote national culture and values</b>	Economics	3		9	25	2	39
		7.7%		23.1%	64.1%	5.1%	
	Education	1	4	9	22	3	39
		2.6%	10.3%	23.1%	56.4%	7.7%	
	Foreign languages		1	4	36	12	53
			1.9%	7.5%	67.9%	22.6%	
	Science and Technology	1	3	11	37	6	58
		1.7%	5.2%	19.0%	63.8%	10.3%	
	Total	5	8	33	120	23	189
		2.6%	4.2%	17.5%	63.5%	12.2%	

## DESCRIPTIVES

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
To improve the quality of education	Economics	39	4.8205
	Education	39	4.4615
	Foreign languages	53	4.5472
	Science and Technology	58	4.6207
	Total	189	4.6085
To strengthen high quality of research	Economics	39	4.6923
	Education	39	4.5641
	Foreign languages	53	4.5660
	Science and Technology	58	4.7069
	Total	189	4.6349
To promote curriculum development and innovation	Economics	39	4.6410
	Education	39	4.3590
	Foreign languages	53	4.6038
	Science and Technology	58	4.5172
	Total	189	4.5344
To promote intercultural awareness and mutual understanding	Economics	39	4.2564
	Education	39	3.9487
	Foreign languages	53	4.2453
	Science and Technology	58	4.0862
	Total	189	4.1376
To improve international visibility and reputation of the institution	Economics	39	4.3590
	Education	39	4.4103
	Foreign languages	53	4.2830
	Science and Technology	58	4.5000
	Total	189	4.3915
To educate graduates able to work and study internationally	Economics	39	4.7436
	Education	39	4.5128
	Foreign languages	53	4.4151
	Science and Technology	58	4.4828
	Total	189	4.5238
To develop strategic partnerships and alliances	Economics	39	4.2308
	Education	39	4.4615
	Foreign languages	53	4.3585
	Science and Technology	58	4.0862
	Total	189	4.2698
To generate revenue and diversify	Economics	39	4.3077

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
financial resources	Education	39	4.1282
	Foreign languages	53	4.3208
	Science and Technology	58	4.1379
	Total	189	4.2222
To increase competitiveness	Economics	39	4.2821
	Education	39	4.1795
	Foreign languages	53	4.0000
	Science and Technology	58	4.2241
	Total	189	4.1640
To develop human resource capacity	Economics	39	4.5385
	Education	39	4.6410
	Foreign languages	53	4.3774
	Science and Technology	58	4.5862
	Total	189	4.5291
To increase brain gain	Economics	39	4.4359
	Education	39	4.2308
	Foreign languages	53	4.2264
	Science and Technology	58	4.2759
	Total	189	4.2857
To promote national culture and values	Economics	39	3.5897
	Education	39	3.5641
	Foreign languages	53	4.1132
	Science and Technology	58	3.7586
	Total	189	3.7831
To access new knowledge and technology	Economics	39	4.4872
	Education	39	4.2821
	Foreign languages	53	4.2642
	Science and Technology	58	4.3276
	Total	189	4.3333
To meet national economic demand	Economics	39	4.5128
	Education	39	4.2821
	Foreign languages	53	4.2075
	Science and Technology	58	4.2759
	Total	189	4.3069
To meet Asian and global economic demand	Economics	39	3.7692
	Education	39	3.9487
	Foreign languages	53	3.9245
	Science and Technology	58	4.0345

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
	Total	189	3.9312

#### ANOVA

Dependent variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
To improve the quality of education	Between Groups	.934	2.871	.038
	Within Groups	.326		
	Total			
	Within Groups	.451		
	Total			
To promote national culture and values	Between Groups	3.046	4.902	.003
	Within Groups	.621		
	Total			
	Within Groups	.565		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Rationales for internationalisation of higher education- Comparisons among three groups of academics regarding to the levels of their education at University A

#### CROSSTABULATION

			To increase brain gain				
				Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	
			Unimportant				Total
University A	What is your highest degree	Bachelor	1	1	8	1	11
			9.1%	9.1%	72.7%	9.1%	100.0%
		Master	1	9	58	51	119
			0.8%	7.6%	48.7%	42.9%	100.0%
		Doctor	0	7	29	23	59
			0.0%	11.9%	49.2%	39.0%	100.0%
	Total		2	17	95	75	189
			1.1%	9.0%	50.3%	39.7%	100.0%

			To promote national culture and values					
			Not at all important	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	
								Total
Univer sity A	What is your highest degree	Bachel or	0	0	1	4	6	11
			0.0%	0.0%	9.1%	36.4%	54.5%	100.0 %
		Master	3	4	21	81	10	119
			2.5%	3.4%	17.6%	68.1%	8.4%	100.0 %
		Doctor	2	4	11	35	7	59
			3.4%	6.8%	18.6%	59.3%	11.9%	100.0 %
	Total		5	8	33	120	23	189
			2.6%	4.2%	17.5%	63.5%	12.2%	100.0 %

#### ANOVA

Dependent variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
To increase brain gain	Between Groups	1.360	3.090	.048
	Within Groups	.440		
	Total			
To promote national culture and values	Between Groups	2.729	4.278	.015
	Within Groups	.638		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Section 2- Rationales for internationalisation of higher education- Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University B

**CROSSTABULATION**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>Not at all important</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Neither important nor unimportant</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Very important</b>	<b>Total</b>
To improve the quality of education	Economics				1	9	10
					10.0%	90.0%	100.0%
	Education		2	4	6	15	27
			7.4%	14.8%	22.2%	55.6%	
	Foreign languages				8	14	22
					36.4%	63.6%	
	Science and Technology				4	11	15
					26.7%	73.3%	
	Total		2	4	19	49	74
			2.7%	5.4%	25.7%	66.2%	
				6.8%	56.8%	36.5%	
To improve international visibility and reputation of the institution	Economics			1	3	6	10
				10.0%	30.0%	60.0%	
	Education		2	8	10	7	27
			7.4%	29.6%	37.0%	25.9%	
	Foreign languages			3	9	10	22
				13.6%	40.9%	45.5%	
	Science and Technology			1	5	9	15
				6.7%	33.3%	60.0%	
	Total		2	13	27	32	74
			2.7%	17.6%	36.5%	43.2%	
To develop human resource capacity	Economics				0	10	10
					0.0%	100.0%	
	Education			4	10	13	27
				14.8%	37.0%	48.1%	
	Foreign languages			2	8	12	22
				9.1%	36.4%	54.5%	
	Science and Technology				7	8	15
					46.7%	53.3%	
	Total			6	25	43	74
				8.1%	33.8%	58.1%	



## DESCRIPTIVES

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
To improve the quality of education	Economics	10	4.9000
	Education	27	4.2593
	Foreign languages	22	4.6364
	Science and Technology	15	4.7333
	Total	74	4.5541
To strengthen high quality of research	Economics	10	4.7000
	Education	27	4.2222
	Foreign languages	22	4.2273
	Science and Technology	15	4.6000
	Total	74	4.3649
To promote curriculum development and innovation	Economics	10	4.7000
	Education	27	4.4074
	Foreign languages	22	4.4545
	Science and Technology	15	4.6000
	Total	74	4.5000
To promote intercultural awareness and mutual understanding	Economics	10	4.4000
	Education	27	4.2222
	Foreign languages	22	4.4545
	Science and Technology	15	4.1333
	Total	74	4.2973
To improve international visibility and reputation of your institution	Economics	10	4.5000
	Education	27	3.8148
	Foreign languages	22	4.3182
	Science and Technology	15	4.5333
	Total	74	4.2027
To educate graduates able to work and study internationally	Economics	10	4.8000
	Education	27	4.2593
	Foreign languages	22	4.5455
	Science and Technology	15	4.6000
	Total	74	4.4865
To develop strategic partnerships and alliances	Economics	10	4.5000
	Education	27	4.4074
	Foreign languages	22	4.2727
	Science and Technology	15	4.6000
	Total	74	4.4189
To generate revenue and diversify financial	Economics	10	4.5000

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
resources	Education	27	4.1481
	Foreign languages	22	4.2727
	Science and Technology	15	4.7333
	Total	74	4.3514
To increase competitiveness	Economics	10	4.4000
	Education	27	4.1481
	Foreign languages	22	4.2727
	Science and Technology	15	4.5333
	Total	74	4.2973
To develop human resource capacity	Economics	10	5.0000
	Education	27	4.3333
	Foreign languages	22	4.4545
	Science and Technology	15	4.5333
	Total	74	4.5000
To increase brain gain	Economics	10	4.7000
	Education	27	4.3333
	Foreign languages	22	4.5909
	Science and Technology	15	4.6667
	Total	74	4.5270
To promote national culture and values	Economics	10	4.1000
	Education	27	4.0000
	Foreign languages	22	4.2273
	Science and Technology	15	4.2667
	Total	74	4.1351
To access new knowledge and technology	Economics	10	4.7000
	Education	27	4.2963
	Foreign languages	22	4.4545
	Science and Technology	15	4.6667
	Total	74	4.4730
To meet national economic demand	Economics	10	4.6000
	Education	27	4.0000
	Foreign languages	22	4.2727
	Science and Technology	15	4.3333
	Total	74	4.2297
To meet Asian and global economic demand	Economics	10	3.8000
	Education	27	3.8889
	Foreign languages	22	4.0909
	Science and Technology	15	4.0667

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
	Total	74	3.9730

#### ANOVA

Dependent variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
To improve the quality of education	Between Groups	1.391	2.856	.043
	Within Groups	.487		
	Total			
To improve international visibility and reputation of the institution	Between Groups	2.293	3.726	.015
	Within Groups	.615		
	Total			
To develop human resource capacity	Between Groups	1.104	2.843	.044
	Within Groups	.388		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Rationales for internationalisation of higher education- Comparisons among three groups of academics regarding to the levels of their education at University B

#### CROSSTABULATION

			To improve the quality of education				
				Neither unimportant nor important		Very important	
University B	What is your highest degree	Bachelor	2	0	0	2	4
			50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		Master	0	2	18	46	66
			0.0%	3.0%	27.3%	69.7%	100.0%
		Doctor	0	2	1	1	4
			0.0%	50.0%	25.0%	25.0%	100.0%
	Total	2	4	19	49	74	
		2.7%	5.4%	25.7%	66.2%	100.0%	

			To increase brain gain				
				Neither unimportant nor important	Important	Very important	
University B	What is your highest degree	Bachelor	2	1	0	1	4
			50.0%	25.0%	0.0%	25.0%	100.0%
		Master	0	1	23	42	66
			0.0%	1.5%	34.8%	63.6%	100.0%
		Doctor	0	0	2	2	4
			0.0%	0.0%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Total		2	2	25	45	74
			2.7%	2.7%	33.8%	60.8%	100.0%

# ANOVA

Dependent variables		Mean Square.	F	Sig.
To improve the quality of education	Between Groups	3.934	9.182	.000
	Within Groups	.428		
	Total			
To strengthen high quality of research	Between Groups	2.518	5.240	.008
	Within Groups	.480		
	Total			
To improve international visibility and reputation of the institution	Between Groups	3.635	6.046	.004
	Within Groups	.601		
	Total			
To educate graduates able study and work internationally	Between Groups	1.739	3.528	.035
	Within Groups	.493		
	Total			
To develop strategic partnerships and alliances with foreign partners	Between Groups	4.389	13.413	.000
	Within Groups	.327		
	Total			
To generate revenue and diversify financial resources	Between Groups	3.872	5.834	.005
	Within Groups	.664		
	Total			
To increase competitiveness	Between Groups	1.593	3.505	.035
	Within Groups	.455		
	Total			
To develop human resource capacity	Between Groups	1.814	4.794	.011
	Within Groups	.378		
	Total			
To increase brain gain	Between Groups	4.958	14.350	.000
	Within Groups	.345		
	Total			
To access new knowledge and technology advancement	Between Groups	2.166	4.789	.011
	Within Groups	.452		
	Total			
To meet the national economic demand	Between Groups	4.305	7.942	.001
	Within Groups	.542		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Section 3- Practice of internationalisation of higher education- Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University A

**DESCRIPTIVES**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of students	Economics	39	3.6410
	Education	39	2.8718
	Foreign languages	53	2.8113
	Science and Technology	58	2.9138
	Total	189	3.0265
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of faculty/staff	Economics	39	4.1026
	Education	39	3.3333
	Foreign languages	53	3.4528
	Science and Technology	58	3.7414
	Total	189	3.6508
Recruitment of foreign students	Economics	39	3.3846
	Education	39	2.8974
	Foreign languages	53	3.0000
	Science and Technology	58	2.4483
	Total	189	2.8889
Recruitment or receipt of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	Economics	39	3.4872
	Education	39	2.7692
	Foreign languages	53	3.2075
	Science and Technology	58	2.7069
	Total	189	3.0212
International research collaboration	Economics	39	3.8462
	Education	39	3.1538
	Foreign languages	53	3.1132
	Science and Technology	58	3.1897
	Total	189	3.2963
Foreign language programs (e.g. English)	Economics	39	4.2051
	Education	39	3.4872
	Foreign languages	53	4.0189
	Science and Technology	58	3.3621
	Total	189	3.7460
Use of foreign curriculum or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g.,	Economics	39	4.0513
	Education	39	2.7692

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
English)	Foreign languages	53	3.3962
	Science and Technology	58	3.1034
	Total	189	3.3122
Cross-border collaborative degree programmes (joint, twinning, bilingual, advanced degree programme)	Economics	39	4.0000
	Education	39	2.4615
	Foreign languages	53	2.8491
	Science and Technology	58	3.2241
	Total	189	3.1217
International institution agreements/networks with foreign partners	Economics	39	4.1538
	Education	39	2.9487
	Foreign languages	53	3.0755
	Science and Technology	58	3.4310
	Total	189	3.3810
Promoting a multicultural environment on campus	Economics	39	3.6154
	Education	39	2.7179
	Foreign languages	53	3.0943
	Science and Technology	58	2.7241
	Total	189	3.0106
Facility development for students and staff (e.g., dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	Economics	39	3.7436
	Education	39	3.2051
	Foreign languages	53	3.1509
	Science and Technology	58	3.1724
	Total	189	3.2910
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	Economics	39	3.7692
	Education	39	3.1795
	Foreign languages	53	3.1509
	Science and Technology	58	3.3103
	Total	189	3.3333
International standards and branding	Economics	39	3.9744
	Education	39	3.3333
	Foreign languages	53	3.5094
	Science and Technology	58	3.5517
	Total	189	3.5820
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	Economics	39	3.6667
	Education	39	3.1026
	Foreign languages	53	3.2075
	Science and Technology	58	3.6034

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
	Total	189	3.4021
Integrating internationalisation elements into institutional official documents	Economics	39	3.9744
	Education	39	3.2051
	Foreign languages	53	3.5660
	Science and Technology	58	3.6379
	Total	189	3.5979

### ANOVA

Dependent Variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of students	Between Groups	6.284	9.081	.000
	Within Groups	.692		
	Total			
Outgoing mobility opportunities (study or work overseas) of faculty/staff	Between Groups	4.814	7.040	.000
	Within Groups	.684		
	Total			
Recruitment of foreign students	Between Groups	7.167	9.393	.000
Recruitment or receipt of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	Between Groups	6.171	6.661	.000
	Within Groups	.926		
	Total			
International research collaboration	Between Groups	5.006	5.251	.002
	Within Groups	.953		
	Total			
Foreign language programs (e.g. English) for students	Between Groups	7.776	11.557	.000
	Within Groups	.673		
	Total			
Use of foreign curriculum or implementation of study programmes in foreign languages (e.g., English)	Between Groups	11.901	16.569	.000
	Within Groups	.718		
	Total			
Cross-border collaborative degree programs (joint, twinning, bilingual, advanced degree program)	Between Groups	17.210	18.032	.000
	Within Groups	.954		
	Total			
International institution agreements/networks with foreign partners	Between Groups	11.892	15.395	.000
	Within Groups	.772		
	Total			



Promoting a multicultural environment on campus	Between Groups	7.579	8.589	.000
	Within Groups	.882		
	Total			
Facility development for students and staff (e.g., dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	Between Groups	3.377	4.499	.005
	Within Groups	.751		
	Total			
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	Between Groups	3.376	4.465	.005
	Within Groups	.756		
	Total			
International standards and branding	Between Groups	2.916	4.049	.008
	Within Groups	.720		
	Total			
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	Between Groups	3.529	3.691	.013
	Within Groups	.956		
	Total			
Integrating internationalisation elements into institutional official documents	Between Groups	3.897	5.472	.001
	Within Groups	.712		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Section 4- Practice of internationalisation of higher education- Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University B

**DESCRIPTIVES**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of students	Economics	10	2.5000
	Education	27	2.1111
	Foreign languages	22	2.0455
	Science and Technology	15	2.0000
	Total	74	2.1216
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of faculty/staff	Economics	10	3.0000
	Education	27	2.4444
	Foreign languages	22	2.5909
	Science and Technology	15	2.8000
	Total	74	2.6351
Recruitment of foreign students	Economics	10	2.6000
	Education	27	2.4444
	Foreign languages	22	2.5000
	Science and Technology	15	2.6000
	Total	74	2.5135
Recruitment or receipt of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	Economics	10	2.3000
	Education	27	2.4815
	Foreign languages	22	2.6364
	Science and Technology	15	2.4000
	Total	74	2.4865
International research collaboration	Economics	10	2.4000
	Education	27	2.1111
	Foreign languages	22	2.8636
	Science and Technology	15	2.1333
	Total	74	2.3784
Foreign language programmes (e.g., English) for students	Economics	10	2.8000
	Education	27	3.1852
	Foreign languages	22	3.8182
	Science and Technology	15	3.1333
	Total	74	3.3108
Use of foreign curriculum or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages	Economics	10	2.0000
	Education	27	2.1111
	Foreign languages	22	2.6818

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
	Science and Technology	15	1.8000
	Total	74	2.2027
Cross-border collaborative degree programmes	Economics	10	1.9000
	Education	27	1.7037
	Foreign languages	22	2.3182
	Science and Technology	15	1.7333
	Total	74	1.9189
International institution agreements with foreign partners	Economics	10	1.9000
	Education	27	2.4074
	Foreign languages	22	2.2273
	Science and Technology	15	2.5333
	Total	74	2.3108
Promoting a multicultural environment on campus	Economics	10	2.1000
	Education	27	2.4815
	Foreign languages	22	2.6818
	Science and Technology	15	2.3333
	Total	74	2.4595
Facility development for students and staff	Economics	10	3.0000
	Education	27	3.1481
	Foreign languages	22	3.7727
	Science and Technology	15	3.4667
	Total	74	3.3784
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	Economics	10	2.6000
	Education	27	2.5185
	Foreign languages	22	3.3636
	Science and Technology	15	2.5333
	Total	74	2.7838
International standards, branding and reputation	Economics	10	2.4000
	Education	27	2.5185
	Foreign languages	22	3.3182
	Science and Technology	15	2.6000
	Total	74	2.7568
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	Economics	10	2.2000
	Education	27	2.6296
	Foreign languages	22	3.0000
	Science and Technology	15	2.9333
	Total	74	2.7432

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
Integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution	Economics	10	2.2000
	Education	27	2.1111
	Foreign languages	22	2.8636
	Science and Technology	15	2.6667
	Total	74	2.4595

#### ANOVA

Dependent Variables	Groups	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Foreign language programs (e.g. English) for students	Between Groups	3.057	3.414	.022
	Within Groups	.895		
	Total			
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	Between Groups	3.525	2.939	.039
	Within Groups	1.199		
	Total			
International standards and branding	Between Groups	3.369	3.834	.013
	Within Groups	.879		
	Total			
Integrating internationalisation elements into institutional official documents	Between Groups	2.729	3.174	.029
	Within Groups	.860		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Section 5- Risks in promoting internationalisation of higher education- Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University A

**DESCRIPTIVES**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Decrease of educational quality	Economics	39	2.2051
	Education	39	2.0513
	Foreign languages	53	1.9245
	Science and Technology	58	1.9655
	Total	189	2.0212
Loss of cultural or national identity	Economics	39	2.1795
	Education	39	1.9487
	Foreign languages	53	1.9623
	Science and Technology	58	1.9310
	Total	189	1.9947
Commercialisation of higher education	Economics	39	3.0000
	Education	39	2.6923
	Foreign languages	53	3.1321
	Science and Technology	58	2.8793
	Total	189	2.9365
Brain drain	Economics	39	2.7692
	Education	39	2.8718
	Foreign languages	53	2.8679
	Science and Technology	58	2.6897
	Total	189	2.7937
Increased inequality in access to educational opportunities	Economics	39	2.9487
	Education	39	2.4872
	Foreign languages	53	2.6792
	Science and Technology	58	2.4310
	Total	189	2.6190
Increase in number of “degree mills” and/or low quality providers	Economics	39	2.8462
	Education	39	2.5385
	Foreign languages	53	3.0000
	Science and Technology	58	2.5345
	Total	189	2.7302
Conflict among different generations of staff(e.g. in terms of perceptions, cultures, benefits)	Economics	39	3.5641
	Education	39	3.0769
	Foreign languages	53	3.2075

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
	Science and Technology	58	3.0690
	Total	189	3.2116
Emergence of too much internationally outward oriented mentality (Political incongruences/threats)	Economics	39	3.0769
	Education	39	2.9487
	Foreign languages	53	3.0566
	Science and Technology	58	2.7759
	Total	189	2.9524

### ANOVA

Dependent Variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
Decrease of educational quality	Between Groups	.677	.688	.560
	Within Groups	.983		
	Total			
	Within Groups	1.014		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Section 6- Risks in promoting internationalisation of higher education- Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University B

**DESCRIPTIVES**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Decrease of educational quality	Economics	10	2.3000
	Education	27	1.9630
	Foreign languages	22	2.0000
	Science and Technology	15	1.6000
	Total	74	1.9459
Loss of cultural or national identity	Economics	10	1.8000
	Education	27	2.4444
	Foreign languages	22	2.9091
	Science and Technology	15	1.8000
	Total	74	2.3649
Commercialisation of higher education	Economics	10	3.1000
	Education	27	2.9259
	Foreign languages	22	3.1818
	Science and Technology	15	3.0000
	Total	74	3.0405
Brain drain	Economics	10	3.4000
	Education	27	2.8519
	Foreign languages	22	3.3636
	Science and Technology	15	3.2000
	Total	74	3.1486
Increased inequality in access to educational opportunities	Economics	10	2.7000
	Education	27	2.9259
	Foreign languages	22	2.5000
	Science and Technology	15	2.2000
	Total	74	2.6216
Increase in number of “degree mills” and/or low quality providers	Economics	10	3.0000
	Education	27	2.9259
	Foreign languages	22	2.8182
	Science and Technology	15	2.5333
	Total	74	2.8243
Conflict among different generations of staff	Economics	10	3.8000
	Education	27	3.2963
	Foreign languages	22	3.1364

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
	Science and Technology	15	2.7333
	Total	74	3.2027
Emergence of too much internationally outward oriented mentality	Economics	10	2.9000
	Education	27	3.4444
	Foreign languages	22	3.2727
	Science and Technology	15	2.5333
	Total	74	3.1351

#### ANOVA

Dependent Variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
Loss of cultural or national identity	Between Groups	4.888	5.476	.002
	Within Groups	.893		
	Total			
Conflict among different generations of staff(e.g. in terms of perceptions, cultures, benefits)	Between Groups	2.402	2.767	.048
	Within Groups	.868		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.



Section 7- Obstacles in undertaking internationalisation of higher education – Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University A

**DESCRIPTIVES**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Lack of overall strategy, concrete plans and appropriate mechanism	Economics	39	3.0769
	Education	39	3.5385
	Foreign languages	53	3.6226
	Science and Technology	58	3.5345
	Total	189	3.4656
Limited interest of students	Economics	39	3.6667
	Education	39	3.5128
	Foreign languages	53	3.7170
	Science and Technology	58	3.7069
	Total	189	3.6614
Inadequate financial resources	Economics	39	4.0000
	Education	39	4.3333
	Foreign languages	53	4.2075
	Science and Technology	58	4.3276
	Total	189	4.2275
Lack of interest, involvement and concerted efforts of academic staff	Economics	39	3.0769
	Education	39	3.1282
	Foreign languages	53	3.2264
	Science and Technology	58	3.1897
	Total	189	3.1640
Lack of highly skilled human resource	Economics	39	3.5385
	Education	39	3.7692
	Foreign languages	53	3.5094
	Science and Technology	58	3.3276
	Total	189	3.5132
Difficulties of recognition and equivalence of qualifications or study programs	Economics	39	3.3846
	Education	39	3.6410

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
	Foreign languages	53	3.5660
	Science and Technology	58	3.1552
	Total	189	3.4180
Lack of high-quality infrastructure	Economics	39	3.5128
	Education	39	3.9231
	Foreign languages	53	4.0189
	Science and Technology	58	4.1897
	Total	189	3.9471
Competition from other universities	Economics	39	2.8462
	Education	39	3.3077
	Foreign languages	53	3.3585
	Science and Technology	58	2.9138
	Total	189	3.1058
Little recognition or interest in internationalisation by senior leaders	Economics	39	2.3590
	Education	39	3.0769
	Foreign languages	53	2.9623
	Science and Technology	58	3.1724
	Total	189	2.9259
Administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties	Economics	39	3.0769
	Education	39	3.4615
	Foreign languages	53	3.6038
	Science and Technology	58	3.6034
	Total	189	3.4656
Lack of international partnering opportunities	Economics	39	2.5128
	Education	39	2.9231
	Foreign languages	53	3.2264
	Science and Technology	58	3.1552
	Total	189	2.9947

# ANOVA

Dependent Variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
Lack of overall strategy, concrete plans and appropriate mechanism	Between Groups	2.560	3.172	.026
	Within Groups			
	Total	.807		
Lack of high quality infrastructure (e.g. campus, e-library, dormitory, laboratories)	Between Groups	3.688	4.051	.008
	Within Groups			
	Total	.910		
Competition from other universities	Between Groups	3.247	3.298	.022
	Within Groups			
	Total	.985		
Little recognition or interest in internationalization by senior leaders	Between Groups	5.673	5.965	.001
	Within Groups			
	Total	.951		
Administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties	Between Groups	2.669	3.185	.025
	Within Groups			
	Total	.838		
Lack of international partnering opportunities	Between Groups	4.532	4.522	.004
	Within Groups			
	Total	1.002		

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Section 8 - Obstacles in undertaking internationalisation of higher education - Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University B

**DESCRIPTIVES**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Lack of overall strategy, concrete plans and appropriate mechanism	Economics	10	4.8000
	Education	27	4.2593
	Foreign languages	22	3.5000
	Science and Technology	15	4.2000
	Total	74	4.0946
Limited interest of students	Economics	10	4.0000
	Education	27	3.9630
	Foreign languages	22	4.0909
	Science and Technology	15	3.8667
	Total	74	3.9865
Inadequate financial resources	Economics	10	4.6000
	Education	27	4.2963
	Foreign languages	22	4.3636
	Science and Technology	15	4.3333
	Total	74	4.3649
Lack of interest, involvement and concerted efforts of academic staff	Economics	10	4.0000
	Education	27	4.1481
	Foreign languages	22	2.8182
	Science and Technology	15	3.8667
	Total	74	3.6757
Lack of highly skilled human resource	Economics	10	4.6000
	Education	27	4.4444
	Foreign languages	22	4.1364
	Science and Technology	15	4.4000
	Total	74	4.3649
Difficulties of recognition and equivalence of qualifications or study programs	Economics	10	4.2000
	Education	27	3.7778
	Foreign languages	22	3.5909
	Science and Technology	15	3.0000
	Total	74	3.6216
Lack of high-quality infrastructure	Economics	10	3.8000

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
	Education	27	3.7037
	Foreign languages	22	3.0455
	Science and Technology	15	4.0667
	Total	74	3.5946
Competition from other universities	Economics	10	4.6000
	Education	27	4.2963
	Foreign languages	22	4.0909
	Science and Technology	15	4.5333
	Total	74	4.3243
Little recognition or interest in internationalisation by senior leaders	Economics	10	4.6000
	Education	27	4.0370
	Foreign languages	22	3.1818
	Science and Technology	15	3.3333
	Total	74	3.7162
Administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties	Economics	10	4.1000
	Education	27	4.5185
	Foreign languages	22	3.6364
	Science and Technology	15	4.0667
	Total	74	4.1081
Lack of international partnering opportunities	Economics	10	4.3000
	Education	27	4.1111
	Foreign languages	22	3.7273
	Science and Technology	15	4.4000
	Total	74	4.0811

## ANOVA

Dependent Variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
Lack of overall strategy, concrete plans and appropriate mechanism	Between Groups	4.551	5.249	.003
	Within Groups	.867		
	Total			
Lack of interest, involvement and concerted efforts of academic staff	Between Groups	7.934	13.095	.000
	Within Groups	.606		
	Total			
Difficulties of recognition and equivalence of qualifications or study programs	Between Groups	3.274	3.114	.032
	Within Groups	1.051		
	Total			
Lack of high quality infrastructure (e.g. campus, e-library, dormitory, laboratories)	Between Groups	3.573	3.162	.030
	Within Groups	1.130		
	Total			
Little recognition or interest in internationalization by senior leaders	Between Groups	6.357	8.246	.000
	Within Groups	.771		
	Total			
Administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties	Between Groups	3.157	6.196	.001
	Within Groups	.509		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Section 9- Strategic programmes for internationalisation of higher education - Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University A

**DESCRIPTIVES**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Outgoing mobility opportunities for students	Economics	39	4.0769
	Education	39	3.8205
	Foreign languages	53	3.9623
	Science and Technology	58	3.7241
	Total	189	3.8836
Outgoing mobility opportunities for faculty/staff	Economics	39	4.7949
	Education	39	4.6154
	Foreign languages	53	4.5660
	Science and Technology	58	4.3621
	Total	189	4.5608
Recruitment of foreign students	Economics	39	3.8205
	Education	39	3.6667
	Foreign languages	53	3.8491
	Science and Technology	58	3.3966
	Total	189	3.6667
Recruitment of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	Economics	39	3.9231
	Education	39	3.8718
	Foreign languages	53	4.1887
	Science and Technology	58	3.7759
	Total	189	3.9418
International research collaboration	Economics	39	4.5385
	Education	39	4.4359
	Foreign languages	53	4.3774
	Science and Technology	58	4.3103
	Total	189	4.4021
Foreign language programs (e.g. English) for students	Economics	39	4.6923
	Education	39	4.4359
	Foreign languages	53	4.4528
	Science and Technology	58	4.2414
	Total	189	4.4339
Use of foreign curriculum or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g.	Economics	39	4.3590
	Education	39	4.0000

Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
English)	Foreign languages	53	4.2642
	Science and Technology	58	4.0862
	Total	189	4.1746
Cross-border collaborative degree programmes	Economics	39	4.3077
	Education	39	3.9487
	Foreign languages	53	4.1321
	Science and Technology	58	3.9483
	Total	189	4.0741
International institution agreements with foreign partners	Economics	39	4.4872
	Education	39	4.0769
	Foreign languages	53	4.2642
	Science and Technology	58	3.9655
	Total	189	4.1799
Promoting a multi-cultural environment on campus	Economics	39	4.1795
	Education	39	3.7692
	Foreign languages	53	4.0943
	Science and Technology	58	3.7069
	Total	189	3.9259
Facility development for students and staff (e.g. dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	Economics	39	4.5897
	Education	39	4.2821
	Foreign languages	53	4.5660
	Science and Technology	58	4.2931
	Total	189	4.4286
Integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution	Economics	39	4.3846
	Education	39	4.1282
	Foreign languages	53	4.3774
	Science and Technology	58	4.0000
	Total	189	4.2116
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	Economics	39	4.4872
	Education	39	3.9744
	Foreign languages	53	4.3019
	Science and Technology	58	4.1724
	Total	189	4.2328
International standards and branding	Economics	39	4.4103
	Education	39	3.9231
	Foreign languages	53	4.3208
	Science and Technology	58	4.0862



Dependent Variables	Groups	N	Mean
	Total	189	4.1852
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	Economics	39	4.4872
	Education	39	4.2051
	Foreign languages	53	4.3208
	Science and Technology	58	4.1724
	Total	189	4.2857
Research capacity building and professional development	Economics	39	4.7179
	Education	39	4.4615
	Foreign languages	53	4.5660
	Science and Technology	58	4.5345
	Total	189	4.5661

# ANOVA

Dependent Variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
Outgoing mobility opportunities for faculty/staff	Between Groups	1.515	4.246	.006
	Within Groups			
	Total	.357		
Recruitment of foreign students	Between Groups	2.306	3.357	.020
	Within Groups			
	Total	.687		
Foreign language programs (e.g. English) for students	Between Groups	1.591	3.358	.020
	Within Groups			
	Total	.474		
International institution agreements/networks with foreign partners	Between Groups	2.379	4.960	.002
	Within Groups			
	Total	.480		
Promoting a multi-cultural environment on campus	Between Groups	2.584	4.009	.009
	Within Groups			
	Total	.644		
Facility development for students and staff (e.g. dormitory, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	Between Groups	1.305	2.862	.038
	Within Groups			
	Total	.456		
Integrating internationalization elements into official documents of the institution	Between Groups	1.831	3.601	.015
	Within Groups			
	Total	.508		
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	Between Groups	1.864	3.825	.011
	Within Groups			
	Total	.487		
International standards and branding	Between Groups	2.066	3.968	.009
	Within Groups			
	Total	.521		

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Section 10 - Strategic programmes for internationalisation of higher education – Comparisons among four disciplinary groups of academics at University B

**DESCRIPTIVES**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Outgoing mobility opportunities for students	Economics	10	4.0000
	Education	27	4.1111
	Foreign languages	22	3.6364
	Science and Technology	15	3.8667
	Total	74	3.9054
Outgoing mobility opportunities for faculty/staff	Economics	10	4.9000
	Education	27	4.3333
	Foreign languages	22	4.4091
	Science and Technology	15	4.2000
	Total	74	4.4054
Recruitment of foreign students	Economics	10	3.2000
	Education	27	3.5556
	Foreign languages	22	3.7273
	Science and Technology	15	3.4000
	Total	74	3.5270
Recruitment of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	Economics	10	4.5000
	Education	27	3.9630
	Foreign languages	22	3.8636
	Science and Technology	15	4.2000
	Total	74	4.0541
International research collaboration	Economics	10	4.3000
	Education	27	4.0370
	Foreign languages	22	4.0909
	Science and Technology	15	3.8667
	Total	74	4.0541
Foreign language programmes (e.g. English) for students	Economics	10	4.5000
	Education	27	4.1111
	Foreign languages	22	4.3636
	Science and Technology	15	4.6667
	Total	74	4.3514
Use of foreign curriculum or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g. English)	Economics	10	4.3000
	Education	27	4.0000
	Foreign languages	22	4.0455

	Science and Technology	15	4.2667
	Total	74	4.1081
Cross-border collaborative degree programmes	Economics	10	4.4000
	Education	27	3.9630
	Foreign languages	22	4.0455
	Science and Technology	15	3.8667
	Total	74	4.0270
International institution agreements with foreign partners	Economics	10	4.4000
	Education	27	4.0741
	Foreign languages	22	4.0000
	Science and Technology	15	4.2000
	Total	74	4.1216
Promoting a multi-cultural environment in campus	Economics	10	4.3000
	Education	27	3.9259
	Foreign languages	22	4.0455
	Science and Technology	15	3.8667
	Total	74	4.0000
Facility development for students and staff	Economics	10	4.5000
	Education	27	4.0000
	Foreign languages	22	4.2273
	Science and Technology	15	4.2000
	Total	74	4.1757
Integrating internationalisation elements into official documents of the institution	Economics	10	4.7000
	Education	27	4.0000
	Foreign languages	22	4.1818
	Science and Technology	15	4.2667
	Total	74	4.2027
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	Economics	10	4.2000
	Education	27	3.7778
	Foreign languages	22	4.0909
	Science and Technology	15	3.8000
	Total	74	3.9324
International standards and branding	Economics	10	4.3000
	Education	27	3.8889
	Foreign languages	22	4.2727
	Science and Technology	15	3.7333
	Total	74	4.0270
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	Economics	10	4.6000
	Education	27	4.0000

	Foreign languages	22	4.1364
	Science and Technology	15	4.2000
	Total	74	4.1622
Research capacity building and professional development	Economics	10	4.8000
	Education	27	4.2963
	Foreign languages	22	4.6364
	Science and Technology	15	4.4000
	Total	74	4.4865

#### ANOVA

Dependent Variables		Mean Square	F	Sig.
Outgoing mobility opportunities for students	Between Groups	.949	.984	.405
	Within Groups	.964		
	Total			

The *p-value* (sig.) is of 0.05 or less, a significant difference does exist.

Section 11- Results from an independent sample *t* test to compare the responses between University A and University B in all question items related to Rationales for internationalisation of higher education

#### INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

Rationales for internationalisation of higher education	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
To strengthen high quality of research	6.880	.009	3.136	.002	.27006
			2.840	.005	.27006
To increase brain gain	.029	.866	-2.606	.010	-.24131
			-2.579	.011	-.24131
To promote national culture and values	.021	.885	-3.271	.001	-.35207
			-3.473	.001	-.35207

If **Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05**, a significant difference does exist between two groups.

Section 12 - Results from an independent sample *t* test to compare the responses between University A and University B in all question items related to Practice of internationalisation of higher education

#### INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

Internationalisation programmes	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of students	.330	.566	7.240	.000	.90483
			6.925	.000	.90483
Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of faculty/staff	2.035	.155	8.819	.000	1.01566
			9.289	.000	1.01566
Recruitment of foreign students	.166	.684	3.001	.003	.37538
			3.100	.002	.37538
Recruitment or receipt of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	.025	.874	3.965	.000	.53468
			4.111	.000	.53468
International research collaboration	.024	.877	6.571	.000	.91792
			6.477	.000	.91792
Foreign language programmes (e.g. English) for students	3.530	.061	3.460	.001	.43522
			3.294	.001	.43522

Use of foreign curriculum or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages	.000	.985	8.325	.000	1.10947
			8.012	.000	1.10947
Cross-border collaborative degree programmes (joint, twinning, bilingual, advanced degree programmes)	.213	.645	7.780	.000	1.20277
			7.520	.000	1.20277
International institution agreements/networks with foreign partners	1.278	.259	8.131	.000	1.07014
			8.337	.000	1.07014
Promoting a multi-cultural environment on campus	1.470	.227	3.978	.000	.55112
			3.886	.000	.55112
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	12.647	.000	4.140	.000	.54955
			3.729	.000	.54955
International academic standards and branding	2.224	.137	6.652	.000	.82525
			6.283	.000	.82525
Engaging in quality assurance and accreditation at the national and international level	.004	.951	4.837	.000	.65887
			4.876	.000	.65887
Integration of internationalisation elements into institutional official documents	1.102	.295	9.215	.000	1.13842
			8.811	.000	1.13842

If **Sig. (2-tailed) <0.05**, a significant difference does exist between two groups.

Section 13 - Results from an independent sample *t* test to compare the responses between University A and University B in all question items related to Risks in promoting internationalisation of higher education

#### INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

Institutional risks of higher education internationalisation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Loss of cultural or national identity	1.716	.191	-2.725	.007	-.37016
			-2.663	.009	-.37016
Brain Drain	.090	.764	-2.374	.018	-.35500
			-2.403	.018	-.35500

If **Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05**, a significant difference does exist between two groups.

Section 14 - Results from an independent sample *t* test to compare the responses between University A and University B in all question items related to Obstacles in undertaking internationalisation of higher education

#### INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

Obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Lack of overall strategy, concrete plans and appropriate mechanism	.239	.626	-4.872	.000	-.62899
			-4.665	.000	-.62899
Limited interest of students (e.g. insufficient demand for internationalized programs)	.364	.547	-2.552	.011	-.32511
			-2.481	.014	-.32511
Lack of interest, involvement and concerted efforts of academic staff	.233	.630	-3.923	.000	-.51165
			-3.920	.000	-.51165
Lack of highly skilled human resource	14.908	.000	-6.639	.000	-.85164
			-7.897	.000	-.85164
Lack of high-quality infrastructure	5.537	.019	2.531	.012	.35250
			2.394	.018	.35250
Competition from other universities	.553	.458	-9.226	.000	-1.21850
			-10.051	.000	-1.21850
Little recognition or interest in internationalization by senior leaders	1.404	.237	-5.709	.000	-.79029
			-5.741	.000	-.79029
Administrative inertia or bureaucratic difficulties	4.543	.034	-5.246	.000	-.64250
			-5.647	.000	-.64250
Lack of international partnering opportunities	.685	.408	-7.930	.000	-1.08637
			-8.335	.000	-1.08637

If **Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05**, a significant difference does exist between two groups.



Section 15- Results from an independent sample *t* test to compare the responses between University A and University B in all question items related to Strategic programmes for internationalisation of higher education.

#### INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

Strategic programmes for internationalisation of higher education	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
International research collaboration	.000	.999	3.313	.001	.34806
			3.009	.003	.34806
Facility development for students and staff	.004	.950	2.603	.010	.25290
			2.481	.014	.25290
Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	.952	.330	2.885	.004	.30037
			2.654	.009	.30037

If **Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05**, a significant difference does exist between two groups.

Section 16 - Results from Pearson's correlation coefficients to indicate the relationship between research participants' international experiences and their attitudes toward internationalisation rationales.

#### Correlation

No			What is the longest time you have been in another country?
1	To strengthen high quality of research	Pearson Correlation	.178**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.004
		N	263
2	To promote national culture and values	Pearson Correlation	-.146*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.018
		N	263

\*\* . Correlation is significant **at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)**.

\* . Correlation is significant **at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)**.

Section 17 - Results from Pearson's correlation coefficients to indicate the relationship between internationalisation experiences of the academics and internationalisation in practice at these two case-study universities.

### Correlation

No			What is the longest time you have been in another country?
1	Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of students	Pearson Correlation	.296**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	263
2	Outgoing mobility (study or work overseas) of faculty/staff	Pearson Correlation	.374**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	263
4	Recruitment or receipt of foreign faculty and visiting lecturers/ professors	Pearson Correlation	.139*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.024
		N	263
5	International research collaboration	Pearson Correlation	.229**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	263
7	Use of foreign curriculum or implementation of academic programmes in foreign languages (e.g. English)	Pearson Correlation	.356**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	263
8	Cross-border collaborative degree programmes (joint, twinning, bilingual, advanced degree programmes)	Pearson Correlation	.318**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	263
9	International institution agreements/networks with foreign partners	Pearson Correlation	.310**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	263
10	Promoting a multi-cultural environment on campus	Pearson Correlation	.127*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.040
		N	263
11	Facility development for students and staff (e.g. dormitory Wi-Fi, ICT, e-library, laboratories, campus)	Pearson Correlation	-.124*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.045
		N	263
12	Support services for students and staff participating in international activities	Pearson Correlation	.130*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.034
		N	263
13	International academic standards and branding	Pearson Correlation	.206**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
		N	263
14	Engaging in quality accreditation at the national	Pearson Correlation	.201**

15	and international level	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
		N	263
	Integration of internationalisation elements into institutional official documents	Pearson Correlation	.337**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	263

\*\* . Correlation is significant **at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)**.

\* . Correlation is significant **at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)**.

# FORM UPR16

## Research Ethics Review Checklist

Please include this completed form as an appendix to your thesis (see the Postgraduate Research Student Handbook for more information)

<b>Postgraduate Research Student (PGRS) Information</b>		<b>Student ID:</b>	UP637686
<b>PGRS Name:</b>	Nguyen, Thi Phuong Thu		
<b>Department:</b>	SECS	<b>First Supervisor:</b>	Dr. MARK FIELD
<b>Start Date:</b> (or progression date for Prof Doc students)	February/2014		
<b>Study Mode and Route:</b>	Part-time <input type="checkbox"/> Full-time <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	MPhil <input type="checkbox"/> PhD <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	MD <input type="checkbox"/> Professional Doctorate <input type="checkbox"/>

<b>Title of Thesis:</b>	The Internationalisation of Higher Education in Vietnamese Universities
<b>Thesis Word Count:</b> (excluding ancillary data)	82,375

If you are unsure about any of the following, please contact the local representative on your Faculty Ethics Committee for advice. Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University's Ethics Policy and any relevant University, academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study

Although the Ethics Committee may have given your study a favourable opinion, the final responsibility for the ethical conduct of this work lies with the researcher(s).

### UKRIO Finished Research Checklist:

(If you would like to know more about the checklist, please see your Faculty or Departmental Ethics Committee rep or see the online version of the full checklist at: <http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/>)

a) Have all of your research and findings been reported accurately, honestly and within a reasonable time frame?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
b) Have all contributions to knowledge been acknowledged?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
c) Have you complied with all agreements relating to intellectual property, publication and authorship?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
d) Has your research data been retained in a secure and accessible form and will it remain so for the required duration?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
e) Does your research comply with all legal, ethical, and contractual requirements?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>

### Candidate Statement:

I have considered the ethical dimensions of the above named research project, and have successfully obtained the necessary ethical approval(s)

<b>Ethical review number(s) from Faculty Ethics Committee (or from NRES/SCREC):</b>	14/15:66
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If you have *not* submitted your work for ethical review, and/or you have answered 'No' to one or more of questions a) to e), please explain below why this is so:

<b>Signed (PGRS):</b>	<i>[Signature]</i>
<b>Date:</b>	30 <sup>th</sup> November, 2018